The AMERICAN
SECONDARY SCHOOL

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Edited By

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Preface

Each year thousands of young men and women graduate from college and enter secondary school teaching. Their training varies from one to another of the 48 states in conformity to the legal requirements for certification. Certain elements are almost universal: educational psychology, practice teaching, and an acquaintance with the development and present status of secondary education.

The authors of this book have spent many years in the initial training, placing in school positions, and in-service training of high school teachers. On the basis of these experiences we have considered judgments about the introductory course for college undergraduates who expect to go into high school teaching. Through our conversations and in group consultation, our convictions were refined into the outline that has resulted in *The American Secondary School.*

The operation of the secondary school is described in broad outline. *Teaching as a career, the extra curriculum, the curriculum, and guidance* have two chapters each. *The school as a force in the community, the historical development of the high school, evaluation, marking, and the organization of public education* are treated in separate chapters.

As a background for the entire book two "foundation stones" are provided: (1) the developmental tasks of adolescents and (2) the social foundations of education. The developmental tasks that an adolescent must master in high school if he is to make a satisfactory adjustment to his peers and the culture are described as six. The bases for these tasks are found in the re-university research laboratories that are concerned with human growth and development. An awareness of these tasks, which is imperative to an understanding of young people, is not yet

widely disseminated or incorporated in introductory texts in education.

Knowledge about the social bases for education has been accumulating slowly throughout a quarter of a century. We have tried to show here the inter-relation between the school and its supporting society. Had we not developed an industrial and urban civilization, secondary education might well have developed more slowly and in another direction. Our information about the selective nature of secondary education and the implications of the class structure in a community influences the kind of secondary school we are building, although in far too many cases teachers and administrators remain unaware of their significance.

In no sense can *The American Secondary School* be thought of as a comprehensive treatise on secondary education suitable for doctoral seminars in major universities. It was written for undergraduates who are entering programs of teacher education to become high school teachers. It has been extensively tried out in manuscript with college juniors and seniors, who have advised us of ways in which it could be improved. It is offered to college teachers who are seeking a text to introduce students to high school teaching as a career.

<div style="text-align: right">PAUL B. JACOBSON</div>

Eugene, Oregon

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Education as a Career

George W. Ebey

During one's lifetime there are important decisions to be made. Probably the two most important are the choice of a wife or husband and the selection of a vocation. If these decisions are hasty or ill-advised, a person may well lead a drab or frustrated or even miserable existence. If the selections are made wisely, he will have an excellent chance for a rich and satisfying life.

In choosing a vocation some people plan, some drift, some let others do their planning for them. If one is planning his career rather than drifting or being pushed, there are many questions he should be asking about education as a profession and about himself in relation to it. He should be sure he wants to be a teacher. Here are a few of the questions he may wish to ask:

· What is the importance of education when compared with other vocations?

What are the opportunities for growth and advancement in the profession?

What kinds of teachers are in greatest demand?

What are the personal satisfactions in education?

How much salary may one expect?

As a teacher what will the duties and responsibilities be?

What are the personal and professional qualities necessary to be a good teacher?

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What are some of the things one should know about relationships to pupils, co-workers, and the community?

Just how "professional" is the teaching profession?

How may a prospective teacher best prepare to enter and grow in the profession?

Let us explore briefly the answers to some of these questions.

Importance of Education as a Profession

Americans always have had great faith in education. Shortly after the first colonists landed in the new world they started schools and passed laws requiring that schools be established at public expense. Scarcely a national figure has lived who has not at some time affirmed his faith in education as an instrument for building and preserving our nation. From the earliest days an organized system of education has been regarded by important leaders as basic to our democratic society.

Why does education hold such a position of respect in American life? The answer is quite simple. We belong to a great country. It is a nation which has grown in less than 200 years from a struggling, impoverished republic to the richest and most powerful nation in the world. Two kinds of resources have been responsible for this position of pre-eminence. One is our natural resources: our forests and fields, our mountains and mighty rivers, our plains and our sea coasts. The other is our human resources: the people who make our country great. Improving the quality of our human resources, our people, is the chief purpose of education. For this reason education is a profession of basic importance in our democratic society.

Education has been called the "parent profession." All other professions and vocations depend upon it for their continuance. Even the proper use of our natural resources depends upon the skill and understanding of our people. Small wonder that enlightened members of the teaching profession consider it the most important social force in American life. Properly organized, its possibilities are unlimited. It is a profession with which one may well be proud to be associated.

SCOPE OF EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION

In size, education is by far the largest profession. Of the 60 million people employed in the United States, roughly a million and a quarter are members of the teaching profession. About one-third of all professional workers are teachers. They number almost two and a half times the physicians, lawyers, and clergymen combined.

Education in our nation is a very large enterprise. One person in five is going to school. Close to 30 million people are enrolled in our schools, colleges, and universities. For these educational services the people of our nation spend several billions of dollars annually. It is evident that education may be compared in scope with the largest of business or industrial enterprises.

Growth of education. Today our patterns of educational organization are a strange combination of the simple and the complex. The growth of our system of education has paralleled the development of our nation. In early America, life was simple and chiefly agrarian. The one-room rural school, in which the teacher taught all subjects to children of all ages, was the typical educational unit. The teacher was responsible to the local school board for all aspects of the educational program. With the impact of the industrial revolution upon American life, cities grew. State governments and the federal government became more aware of their responsibilities to education. Today state and large city systems and many of our great universities are as highly organized and specialized as very large business concerns and other governmental agencies. People are sometimes surprised to find the school superintendent's office in a large city occupying several floors in a downtown office building, or even a sizable building of its own.

In sharp contrast to our larger educational systems, one-teacher schools persist, a reminder of our colonial and pioneer past. Though they decreased 42 per cent between 1930 and 1946, they still numbered more than 86,000,[1] chiefly in sparsely

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[1] U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *"Statistical Survey of Education, 1945-46," Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1944-46* (Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1949), p. 5.

settled, inaccessible parts of the country, and employed over 12 per cent of the nation's elementary teachers.

As a college student plans his career, he should remember that education is a vast and important enterprise, deeply rooted in American life. He should also remember that the schools of our nation are as simple and complex as the communities they serve. All need and deserve excellent teachers and professional leaders. Consideration should be given to serving in the type of situation best suited to each prospective teacher's own interests and abilities.

QUALITIES NEEDED IN MEMBERS OF THE PROFESSION

No profession is greater than the people who make up its membership. Education is no exception. Its influence will depend directly upon the quality of its teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Because education is concerned with improving our human resources, it merits the best talents society can provide. Certainly the persons to whom we entrust the education of our children and youth should be selected carefully from among our finest citizens. There should be no room in the profession for the dull and drab, the unstable and incompetent. Only the best should be allowed the privilege of influencing the growth and development of our nation's most precious asset.

What are the qualities most to be desired in teachers? For many years educators have sought the answer to this question. Research in this field probably will continue as long as there are teachers to be evaluated. One difficulty in evaluation is that the effectiveness of a teacher logically should be measured by the desirable changes which occur in the learners under his guidance. Some of the more important changes in learners are not always easily measured. Nor can one be sure that the changes which do take place are caused by the teacher or by other influences, such as the radio, television, motion pictures, a learner's parents, his friends, or even his own growth pattern. Furthermore, not all children have the same needs. There is some evidence that a teacher who is excellent with one type of

child may be much less effective with another type. Continued study is necessary.

Teachers and our times. From the practical standpoint we cannot await the results of these studies. Competent persons must be encouraged to enter the profession. Teachers must be selected. We must use the accumulated intelligence of the profession to select individuals we consider best qualified to teach. The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education describes the urgency of the situation:

> We live in a revolutionary period of history. All our values, all our ways of existence, are being challenged. Upon the choices we and our children make a fateful future hangs. How can we equip those children to choose wisely and then act with effective intelligence? It is evident that we must be clear as to our basic values; we must understand what are the most important social facts of our times. Then we must obtain schools in which our children can learn to share those values, to deal with those facts. But if this is to be done, teachers who can create such schools must be produced. This is the task of teacher education.[2]

From this statement of the importance of education in our society and of the teachers to whom the function is entrusted, it is apparent that effective teaching requires excellent people who themselves have had a broad, balanced, and superior education. Ideally, teachers should be among the finest individuals our culture can produce.

Like other people, teachers differ. They are human personalities. Two people may have similar characteristics, but are never exactly the same. No two teachers in our nation are identical. Yet there are many excellent members of the profession. On a faculty the differences of teachers may actually be a source of great strength. Our democratic society should respect the individuality of teachers. There are also likenesses among fine teachers. In spite of differing strengths and weaknesses, there are basic qualities necessary for excellence in

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[2] Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, *Teachers for our Times* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1944), p. 175.

teaching. Let us consider the important qualities common to strong teachers.

What students think. In recent years Witty [2] has analyzed what students consider to be the traits of the teacher who helped them most. He based his summary upon letters received from about 14,000 students in one study and 33,000 in another. Their letters were interesting. Not only was there general agreement among them, but their letters revealed the keen perception of the students themselves. A prospective teacher should be interested in both the positive and negative traits the students regarded most important.

Most Frequently Mentioned Positive Traits	*Most Frequently Mentioned Negative Traits*
1. Cooperative, democratic attitude	1. Bad tempered and intolerant
2. Kindliness and consideration for the individual	2. Unfair and inclined to have favorites
3. Patience	3. Disinclined to help pupils
4. Wide interests	4. Unreasonable in demands
5. Pleasing personal appearance and manner	5. Tendency to be gloomy and unfriendly
6. Fairness and impartiality	6. Sarcastic, and inclined to use ridicule
7. Sense of humor	7. Unattractive appearance
8. Good disposition and consistent behavior	8. Impatient and inflexible
9. Interest in pupils' problems	9. Tendency to talk excessively
10. Flexibility	10. Inclined to talk down to pupils
11. Use of recognition and praise	11. Overbearing and conceited
12. Unusual proficiency in teaching	12. Lacking sense of humor

What educators think. For a long time educators in Cali-

[2] P. A. Witty, "Evaluation of Studies of the Characteristics of the Effective Teacher," *Improving Educational Research*, Official Report, A.E.R.A., 1948, pp. 198-204.

fornia have been working on a description of the type of
secondary teacher the colleges and universities of the state
should develop. Their study was interrupted by World War II.
After the war, under the leadership of the California Council
on Teacher Education, they renewed their efforts. Large
numbers of teacher educators, secondary school principals,
and other professional workers took part in the project. They
agreed that they wanted secondary teacher education programs
that would develop:

1. Liberally educated teachers of superior personality and many-
   sided interests, capable of participating in cooperative under-
   takings.
2. Teachers of substantial achievement in one or more of the major
   areas of learning. (They also recognized the danger of over-
   specialization.)
3. Teachers with knowledge and understanding of the school as a
   social institution, of childhood and adolescence, of the particular
   area in which instruction will be given; and with the ability to
   plan, to execute, and to relate to other aspects of the school the
   work the teacher proposes to do.
4. Teachers with a knowledge of the job they are expected to do,
   with a keen understanding of the community and its workings,
   and with a good sense of what is involved in public relations.[4]

It can readily be seen that leaders in education are seeking
teachers who are well-rounded personalities with a liberal
education. At the same time, they desire teachers who are
competent in their profession. John Dewey once wrote: "What
the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must
the community want for all of its children."[5] Perhaps what is
desired in teachers may best be summarized as those qualities
expected in our best and wisest parents and, in addition, the
professional understandings and skills necessary to organize an
effective program for learning.

Importance of the Classroom Teacher

In education there is no substitute for the excellent class-
room teacher. A competent administrator will provide a con-

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[4] California Council on Teacher Education, mimeographed report, circa 1947.
[5] John Dewey, *The School and Society* (2d ed.; Chicago: University of Chi-
cago Press, 1915), p. 3

genial environment in which teachers may do their best work. He will strive for adequate school buildings, materials and supplies, and enthusiastic public support. Supervisors will assist teachers in enriching their programs. All are important. But in the final analysis the classroom teacher is the basic educational worker — in one-room schools and large city systems alike.

Why the classroom teacher is important. There are two reasons why the classroom teacher is so important. The first reason is obvious when you study Chart 1. Of the million and a quarter educational workers, 92.3 per cent are classroom teachers. Only 7.7 per cent hold administrative or supervisory positions. For the most part, classroom teachers *are* the education profession.

	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	PER CENT
KINDERGARTEN AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS	43,408	578,961	622,369	49.3
SECONDARY SCHOOLS	140,454	211,964	352,418	28.0
HIGHER EDUCATION	130,698	43,506	174,204	13.8
MISCELLANEOUS	5,240	10,227	15,467	1.2
TOTAL PER CENT	319,800 27.5	844,658 72.5	1,164,458 100.0	(92.3)
ADMINISTRATIVE-SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL			97,243	7.7
GRAND TOTAL			1,261,701	100.0

CHART 1.

The second reason is even more fundamental. The classroom teacher is the person in daily contact with pupils. He is responsible for the guidance of learning every day of the school year. It is he who determines whether the program is rich or meager, challenging or frustrating. More than any other educational worker, the classroom teacher has the opportunity to help stu-

dents broaden their horizons and develop worthy purposes. To improve the quality of education, emphasis must be placed upon preparing better classroom teachers.

Later a young teacher may decide to prepare for an administrative or supervisory position. Eventually he may want to work in one of the many special areas in the field of education. For any such employment, classroom teaching is necessary background. On the other hand, like many others, he may derive his greatest satisfaction from becoming a master classroom teacher.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR EMPLOYMENT

When a prospective teacher completes his teacher education program, he probably will be interested in obtaining a position. Most prospective teachers are, though some have other plans. Whether he has difficulty in obtaining a position or is easily placed will depend upon how successfully he is able to answer three fundamental questions:

1. How competent am I, how well-prepared to teach?
2. What age group am I best adapted to teach?
3. What kinds of teachers will be in greatest demand when I am seeking a position?

The first and second questions he must answer for himself, with the aid of advisers in whom he has confidence. In general, well-qualified candidates are among the first to be placed. This fact is worth remembering as he begins his preparation. Certainly it would also be an excellent idea for him to observe good teaching on several age levels and in a variety of situations. Some people have personalities and interests especially well-suited to teaching a certain age group. Still others have outstanding talent in a special field. Many people, however, are capable of adapting themselves broadly to pupils on different levels of development or in several fields. If the prospective teacher is one of this type, his decision may depend upon his answer to the third question, which concerns the availability of positions. To insure desirable employment, he may even wish to prepare for teaching more than one age group or teaching in two or more fields.

Teacher supply and demand. In the last 20 years teacher supply and demand have fluctuated greatly. In 1950, for example, about three secondary teachers were prepared for every secondary vacancy. At the same time there were three or more vacancies in elementary schools for every new elementary teacher certificated. As a result, superintendents were looking feverishly for elementary teachers, especially on the primary level, while many newly trained secondary teachers were anxiously seeking positions.

TABLE 1

Estimated Total Number of New Teachers Needed Each Year, 1948-1960, and Estimated Total Teaching Positions for Each Year.*

Year	New Teachers Needed (Including Replacements)*			Estimated Total Teaching Positions
	Elementary	Secondary	Total	
1948	58,945	19,085	78,030	1,005,660
1949	75,785	13,333	89,118	1,031,547
1950	79,502	13,009	92,511	1,053,547
1951	79,400	13,239	92,639	1,076,867
1952	78,270	17,811	96,081	1,110,820
1953	97,985	20,461	118,448	1,158,253
1954	100,353	22,601	122,954	1,206,948
1955	93,840	22,999	116,839	1,246,226
1956	82,759	27,903	110,582	1,278,593
1957	70,670	35,673	106,343	1,300,820
1958	82,970	56,791	99,761	1,317,120
1959	51,398	33,121	84,519	1,317,393
1960	57,090	29,953	87,073	1,320,466
Total ...	988,967	305,909	1,294,876	

* These figures indicate estimated number of teachers needed to fill new positions and to replace teachers leaving the profession. They do not include the number required to replace emergency teachers and to reduce average class size to a ratio of 25 children for one teacher. When table was prepared, there were 90,000 emergency teachers: 70,000 elementary and 20,000 secondary. To reduce average class size to 25, another 135,594 elementary teachers would have been necessary. To eliminate emergency teachers and reduce class size, 1,523,470 teachers would be needed between 1948 and 1960 instead of the 1,294,876 shown in the table.

* From table prepared by T. M. Stinnett, Associate Secretary, National Commission On Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Washington, D C. Complete table appears in "Wanted: One and One-half Million New Teachers," *The School Executive,* May, 1949, p. 14.

Even on the secondary level opportunities varied greatly. In 1950 there was an adequate supply of secondary teachers in most fields. In home economics and girls' physical education, however, there were serious shortages. The greatest oversupply existed in social studies and men's physical education.

Table I shows the best estimate of teacher demand on a national basis through 1960. For guidance in a particular field, current periodicals and research bulletins should be consulted. Since opportunities will vary according to locality, information should be sought also from college placement offices, state departments of education, and possibly state education associations.

In general, employment opportunities for classroom teachers are divided into the following levels: pre-school, elementary, secondary, college and university. Even though a college student may have decided definitely that he is interested only in the secondary level, a brief review of other areas will be advantageous. It will help relate his level of interest to the other major areas.

Pre-school education. Nursery schools and kindergartens normally are considered to be pre-school education. In many communities they are privately operated. In some communities the kindergarten not only is publicly supported but has become an important and integral part of the elementary school program.

The chief purpose of pre-school education is the personal and social development of three-, four-, and five-year-old children. A few nursery schools accept even younger children. The program usually is a flexible one emphasizing art, music, play, and other socializing activities. Nursery schools and kindergartens are important in adjusting children to the school situation and providing them with a rich background of experience *for elementary school business.*

The pre-school field has been limited almost exclusively to women teachers. Opportunities for employment have been and probably will continue to be good. Teachers in this area should enjoy working with young children and should be well-prepared

in child development, child psychology, children's literature, family relations, and sociology. The ability to teach simple art, music, rhythms, and games is indispensable. The teacher who also has prepared for primary education usually will be in very great demand.

Elementary school teaching. Educational leaders agree that the elementary level is one of great opportunity for both men and women. The reason is partly one of simple arithmetic. Most of the people going to school are in the elementary grades. Though many city districts consider the elementary school to be grades one through six, the typical elementary school in the United States still includes grades seven and eight. In 1948 over half of all classroom teachers were elementary teachers. There were slightly more teachers in elementary schools than in the combined total of kindergartens, secondary schools, colleges and universities. This fact is important not only for prospective teachers but also for persons who may be interested eventually in administration, supervision, and teacher education.

An elementary teacher normally has one group of children and is responsible for their well-rounded growth, including their development in the three R's. In the upper grades there is frequently some opportunity for specialization, particularly in art, music, physical education, industrial arts, home economics, and science.

To be effective, an elementary teacher must enjoy children and be able to work with them on their level. He must understand them as individuals, be able to provide for their differences, and use their natural curiosity and interests to advance their growth. Increasingly school administrators are looking for elementary teachers who have some background in art, music, dramatics, and physical education.

During our nation's early history most elementary teachers were men. Since the Civil War elementary schools have been staffed largely by women. Though the kindergarten and pri-

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[7] Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher* (New York: American Book Company, 1939), pp 199–208.

mary grades probably will continue to be the almost exclusive domain of women, there appears to be a trend toward an increased number of men in the intermediate and upper grades. This is a wholesome trend. As salaries for teachers become more professional and salary differences for elementary and secondary school teaching decrease, the trend probably will continue until a "golden mean" between men and women teachers in the elementary school is established.

Secondary school teaching. The secondary school [a] is a field that has had phenomenal growth since 1890. Since then it has changed from a school serving a select few to one enrolling a very large proportion of youth from all segments of society. The faculties of public secondary schools alone have increased over thirty-fold, from 9,120 in 1890 to more than 305,000 in 1948.[b] Largely responsible for this change has been the growth of our technological society — with decreased employment opportunity for youth and, its natural companion, increased compulsory school age. (*See* Chapter 5.)

Secondary teaching is a stimulating field. Since the secondary school now enrolls youth from a broad cross section of American life, its program is undergoing extensive changes. Some secondary students are college bound. For others the high school will be the end of their formal education. Programs must be designed to teach all youth the ways of democracy and, at the same time, to provide for individual needs, interests, and abilities.

Many high school programs continue to be extremely traditional, dominated by single textbook teaching and a prescribed subject matter philosophy. Programs will change only as teachers change. There is real need for more secondary teachers with a fresh viewpoint — a viewpoint that emphasizes the growth and development of youth.

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[a] Normally the junior college is considered a secondary school. Since statistics on the junior college from the U.S. Office of Education are included under higher education, the secondary school in this chapter encompasses only the junior and senior high schools and the regular four- and five-year high schools.

[b] For 1890 figure see U.S. Office of Education, "Statistical Survey of Education, 1945-46," *op. cit.*, p. 20. The 1948 figure is taken from Chart 1 on page 11 of this chapter.

Teachers with such a viewpoint will move away from stereotyped lessons centered around a single textbook. They will analyze the human material with which they are working, the boys and girls in their classes. Ever conscious of individual differences, they will provide opportunities for a variety of experiences. Lectures and class discussions will be liberally interspersed with individual reports, panel discussions, motion pictures, slides and film strips, class trips, library research, outside speakers, and various other experiences. Students and teachers increasingly will plan programs together. Not only do boys and girls learn to plan by planning, but through teacher-pupil planning the content of courses becomes more vital and significant to the learners. Under these circumstances students work harder, learn more.

To be successful in the secondary field, one must enjoy working with youth of secondary school age. Employing administrators are looking for secondary teachers who have warm, friendly personalities and who have well-rounded backgrounds of experience. They desire teachers with an understanding of human growth and development, adolescent psychology, and the learning process. They are interested in teachers who are broadly trained, well-prepared in a variety of fields, with special competence in two or more areas.

Teachers who are capable, personable, and adaptable will be in demand for junior high school, high school, and upper elementary positions. Many administrators believe that teaching in the elementary school, with its more flexible program, is excellent background for teaching ultimately on the secondary level.

College teaching. Many young teachers aspire to college or university teaching as their ultimate professional goal. College teaching has enjoyed greater prestige than teaching on other levels. This prestige and the pleasant associations of college life appeal to many prospective teachers.

Although there is much excellent teaching in higher educational institutions, some of the poorest teaching also takes place in college classrooms. The reasons are simple. College teachers frequently are selected because of their scholarship or their

interest in research work. In many instances they have no background in educational methods and no understanding of the learning process. Some professors are openly scornful of efforts to improve teaching techniques, contending that knowledge of one's field is all that is important. Frequently these same professors are so far removed from their students that they fail to recognize them on the campus.

College teaching is an area with many challenging opportunities. A person planning to become a college teacher will be a better teacher if he first has had elementary or secondary teaching experience. Higher education differs from the other levels in several important respects:

1. Many colleges and universities are privately controlled. While nine out of ten elementary and secondary teachers are in public schools, about half the teachers in higher education are employed in private colleges and universities.

2. Excluding administration and supervision, college teaching is the only field in which men outnumber women teachers. Here men exceed women almost three to one. Only in teachers colleges do women faculty members approximate the number of men.

3. College teaching tends to be more highly specialized than other areas. Only in very large high schools does the specialization approach that found on the college level.

4. More preparation is required for college teaching. Normally, to begin in a small college as an instructor a master's degree is expected, and a doctor's degree is necessary for initial appointment in most of the major institutions.

Obviously there is a smaller demand for college teachers than for other types of teachers. There are fewer students in college than in elementary and secondary schools. In 1948 there were almost 175,000 college teachers in the more than 1,700 colleges and universities of our nation.[19] In other words, about one teacher in seven was employed on the college level.

The future of higher education. The long range employment outlook in higher education is very good for well-qualified persons. There are *several reasons:*

1. The trend is for a larger number of youth to complete high school and enter college.

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[19] See Chart 1.

2. The growing interest in higher education probably will result in a larger number of institutions, especially junior colleges, distributed widely throughout the country. For one interested in college teaching, the recent community college development merits exploration.

3. There is a trend toward lengthening the period of college training.

4. The higher birth rate of the 1940's will begin to affect college enrollments in the late 1950's. Anticipating these conditions, in 1948 the President's Commission on Higher Education recommended that the number of faculty members in institutions of higher learning throughout the nation be increased to 300,000 by 1960, almost double its size in 1948.[11]

CAREER OPPORTUNITIES IN EDUCATION

Almost all educational workers will begin their careers as classroom teachers. Statistics show that most of them will continue their professional work in this capacity. Many fine teachers who enjoy working closely with children and youth prefer classroom teaching. Salaries and prestige should be provided to enable them to serve where they are most needed. Becoming a superior classroom teacher should be looked upon as an excellent career. A few teachers, seven or eight in one hundred, will become administrators or supervisors. Still others will assume specialized teaching positions in such fields as guidance, remedial reading, or psychometric testing.

Expanding opportunities. During the decade from 1950 to 1960, because of the large growth in school populations, there will be a great increase in the number of special career opportunities in education. In administration and supervision alone it is anticipated that between 20,000 and 30,000 new positions will be created during the decade. For those who have the interest and ability there will be abundant opportunities.

In a brief statement it is impossible to describe in detail the many varied opportunities. In Table II are listed the types of educational positions in one large city school system and the

[11] *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, U.S. Department of Labor, Bulletin No 940 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1949), p. 36.

number of people employed in each position. The list is suggestive of the kinds of opportunities throughout the nation. Because they are more numerous, a few of the positions merit further description. These are the positions of principal, supervisor, superintendent of schools, and the specialized teaching positions.

The principal. Every school must have someone who is responsible for the program. In small schools this person usually is called a head teacher or teaching principal. When a school has ten or more teachers, a full-time principal is needed to perform the administrative and general supervisory functions.

TABLE 11

Educational Personnel in Public Schools
Portland, Oregon — June, 1951
Total Number: 2,085

Classroom Teachers	1,785	*Supervisors in Educational Areas*	18
Elementary (grades 1 through 8)	1,189	Health, Physical Education, Recreation	3
High School (including counselors and social-recreational advisers)	527	Music	2
		Adult Family Life Education	1
Kindergarten	72	Art	1
		Counselling and Guidance	1
Special Teachers	102	Family Life Education	1
Remedial Reading Teachers	59	Four-H Clubs	1
Visiting Teachers (school social workers)	13	Kindergarten-Primary Education	1
Speech Correctionists	15	Language Arts	1
Teachers of Home Bound Children	10	Mathematics	1
Teachers of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Children	8	Radio Station KBPS	1
Teachers of Hospitalized Children	4	Science	1
Teachers of Crippled Children	3	Social Sciences	1
Teachers in Juvenile Detention Homes	3	Special Projects	1
Teachers of Maladjusted Children	3	Visiting Teachers (school social workers)	1
Teachers of Low Vitality Children	2	*Administrators*	114
Teachers of Visually Handicapped Children	2	Superintendent of Schools	1
		Deputy Superintendent of Schools	1
		Assistant Superintendents	3
		Elementary Principals	56
		High School Vice-Principals	17
		High School Principals	9

TABLE II

Educational Personnel in Public Schools
Portland, Oregon — June, 1951

Total Number: 2,085

Administrators (cont.)		Coordinators (cont.)	
Head Teachers	15	Lunchrooms	1
Principal of Evening Schools	1	*Others*	63
		School Nurses	19
Directors:		Psychometrists and other	
Secondary Education	1	Testers	10
Elementary Education	1	Attendance Officers	9
Child Services	1	School Physicians (part-time)	5
Research	1	School Dentists (half-time)	5
Instructional Materials	1	Medical Director	1
Adult and Vocational Education	1	Physiotherapist	1
Elementary Instruction	1	Psychiatrist	1
		Special Investigator	1
Coordinators:		Supervisor of Dental Health	1
Personnel	1	Supervisor of School Nurses	1
Sites and Buildings	1	Dental Counselors	9
Vocational Education	1		

The principal is an important person in the educational
scheme. The elementary or secondary school is a natural educa-
tional unit, and the principal is its leader. His chief functions
are organizing an effective program with teachers and pupils,
and working with parents on school problems. He is respon-
sible for interpreting administrative policies to teachers and
parents and, in turn, reflecting their thinking to his superiors
when new policies are formulated. In many cases, he assists in
selecting his teaching and other personnel. In most instances,
he is expected to judge their performance. Research shows
that school programs will vary in excellence according to the
leadership of their principals.[12]

Because of the nature of his duties, a principal must be a
capable organizer, a good public relations man, and a com-
petent supervisor of teaching. He should have personal qual-

[12] George W. Ebey, *Adaptability Among the Elementary Schools of an Amer-
ican City* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia
University, 1940), p. 63.

ities that inspire the confidence of teachers, pupils, and parents. A successful principal almost invariably is skilled in the art of democratic human relations. At the same time, since he must make decisions, he should have the courage necessary to support his convictions. Just as some prefer to teach rather than assume administrative responsibilities, others find their greatest professional rewards in a principalship.

Supervisory positions. If a person is keenly interested in a special field — such as music, art, physical education, science, or primary education — his professional goal probably should be either to become a master teacher or to assume a supervisory position in his field. Most of the supervisory positions are included in Table II.

Schools should be striving constantly to improve their programs. For this purpose supervisors are appointed. They are master teachers charged with *coordinating and enriching instruction* in the major curriculum areas. Since their goals are achieved chiefly through working with principals and teachers, supervisors should have *warm, friendly personalities* which enable them to deal with people in a sympathetic and understanding manner. Most of their time should be spent in the field assisting teachers and principals on instructional problems.

In addition, supervisors are looked upon as *experts* in their fields. They must keep abreast of new developments and be ready to use their knowledge in writing new courses of study and curriculum guides. Usually they play an active part in *organizing in-service training programs and conferences* for improving teaching.

In modern education, supervisors are *resource persons who help rather than inspect teachers*. They may advise a principal on the strengths and weaknesses of teachers in his building. They should suggest ways in which the principal may improve his program and further assist his teachers. In the final analysis they *should not* be required to judge the performance of teachers. *The evaluation of teachers is an administrative function and, therefore, the responsibility of the principal.*

The superintendent of schools. The position of superintendent of schools probably is the most difficult one in education today. A superintendent is the executive officer of the board of education, responsible for providing leadership in the development of policy and for administering policy approved by the board. As titular head of the system, he is the symbol of a community's public schools. He frequently is required to make important decisions, some of which adversely affect certain citizens in the community. When people are not completely satisfied with their schools, their logical course of action is to bring pressure upon the superintendent.

Yet the superintendent is attractive as a career position. It has many compensations. It is one of the best paying positions in education. A successful superintendent has high prestige in his community. Through the wise use of leadership, he can have an important influence in improving the lives of his community's children and youth.

A successful superintendent must have excellent personal qualifications. He should appear well in public and be able to communicate his ideas easily. In addition, he must have a rich background of experience in education. He must be convinced of the importance of education in our democratic society. He must understand teaching on all levels, preferably through having taught on several levels. He must know what is sound administration in both elementary and secondary schools. He must be an expert in selecting personnel. He must be competent in handling business affairs, in developing budgets, in selecting building sites, in maintaining and expanding school facilities. Though much of the detailed work may be done by his staff, he will be responsible for the major decisions. In developing a program, he must maintain excellent relationships with school board members and with all community groups. In brief, to be successful a superintendent must be a strong combination of educator, businessman, and public relations expert.

Though none would minimize the exacting nature of their duties, successful superintendents would agree that the position is a stimulating and gratifying career.

The specialized teaching positions. After serving successfully in the classroom, a teacher may decide to prepare for one of the many specialized teaching fields. At present a relatively small number of teachers are engaged in this type of work. However, the number is growing as school systems try to provide adequately for individual differences.

One of the most common of the specialized positions is the counselor on the secondary school level. All teachers should have a guidance viewpoint. Most modern secondary schools also employ counselors to aid students in planning their educational programs and to assist them with their personal problems. Some schools also have vocational counselors who work closely with local firms in providing work experience and placement opportunities for pupils who are not going to college. Frequently counselors divide their time between classroom teaching and counseling. All in this type work should have had graduate study in the field of guidance. Ideally, they should be individuals with broad experience.

Another area which offers many opportunities *is the field of special education.* This is a broad field covering the education of all types of exceptional children. It includes the teaching of the visually handicapped, the deaf and hard of hearing, the crippled, the low vitality children, the very rapid learners, the very slow learners, the speech defective, children needing remedial reading, the emotionally maladjusted, the homebound, the hospitalized, and children in juvenile detention homes. All special education teachers must be sympathetic, competent persons who enjoy working with individuals and small groups of children. All should understand the problems of classroom teachers. In most areas they should have had at least a graduate year of specialized study. Some educators feel that we are overlooking many children who need special attention. They believe the field of special education will expand to meet these needs in the years ahead.

A teacher especially interested in psychology, mental health, or maladjustment may wish to prepare to become a *school psychologist* or a *school social worker.* These are fascinating fields requiring at least a year of graduate study. The school

psychologist is responsible for diagnosing the learning difficulties of children who have not adapted well to the school environment. He works closely with the special education department. Frequently he also is responsible for the school testing program.

The school social worker, sometimes called the visiting teacher, is a person who works with children and youth who are maladjusted socially or emotionally. His work is preventive and remedial. He deals with many types of warped personalities. In his activity he draws upon many resources — the school, the home, the child guidance clinic, the school psychiatrist.

Adult education. A field which seems destined to become a more important part of educational programs throughout the nation is adult education. There are several reasons. Our technological society has afforded people more leisure time. Medical science has extended man's life span. Public schools are more conscious of the importance of meeting the educational needs of all the people. As a result there is a growing emphasis upon lifelong learning. It is anticipated that larger numbers of adults will enroll in high school classes, correspondence courses, and college extension courses. In addition, there will be adult education classes under a variety of names: related trade training, adult family life education, conferences, institutes, forums, workshops, refresher and continuation courses. Adult education is a field in which some will desire to spend part of their time as teachers. It is an area in which others will want to specialize.

Study and Discussion

1. Describe briefly the best teacher and poorest teacher you have had since beginning school. List the qualities that made one the best, the other the poorest in your opinion.
2. Visit and observe classes on three or four widely-spaced grade levels. With which age group or groups do you think you would be most successful? Why?
3. Study what kinds of teachers will be in greatest and least demand this year. How does demand compare with anticipated

supply? Information may be obtained from your college placement office, the state department of education, the state education association, and recent bulletins in the library.

4. Describe briefly the position you ultimately hope to hold in education. What steps do you plan to take to achieve your objective?

5. Visit a nursery school or kindergarten class in your area. Discuss its purposes with the teacher. Should pre-school education become a regular part of the school program? Justify your position.

6. Discuss the problems of secondary school teaching with a local teacher, administrator, or supervisor. What is an acceptable viewpoint on secondary education? How can you provide for all American youth without neglecting the gifted?

7. Interview a principal, supervisor, or special teacher in your locality. Describe in some detail (a) the functions of the position and (b) the education and experience desirable as background for such a position.

8. Analyze the future of college teaching. What bearing will national and international events have upon college careers? What are the opinions of educators in recent professional magazines?

9. Describe one or more superintendents of your acquaintance. What are their strengths and weaknesses? How do these measure up to the qualifications outlined in this chapter?

10. Study the development of adult education in our country. Write a paper on its history, its present status, or your opinion of its future.

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2

Advantages and Disadvantages of Education as a Career

George W. Ebey

Whether a college student should choose education as a profession will depend largely upon what he considers important in life. If his major purpose is to become the wealthiest person in the community, or to own the largest farm in the county, or to spend his winters relaxing in luxurious resorts, he probably should select some other vocational field. In brief, if his dominant life purposes are chiefly materialistic, he should not choose education as a career.

If, however, he believes firmly in our democratic way of life and desires to make a significant contribution to it, if he enjoys working with people in a creative and pleasant atmosphere, if he is interested in living moderately well, then he should consider seriously the exciting opportunities of a career in education. For teaching has the possibilities of being a most creative, socially important, and satisfying way of earning one's living. James M. Spinning, superintendent of schools in Rochester, New York, probably would add: "It's not just a way of earning

a living. It's a way of life which is concerned with improving life. The teaching profession is a chance to multiply one's influence. It's something that must appeal to anyone who wants to have some part in making a better world." [1]

· *The teacher's job.* In general, teaching is hard work. Any work involving the supervision of groups of people throughout the day, enjoyable though it may be, requires the expenditure of a great deal of nervous energy. When these people are active, inquisitive, growing children, the nervous strain is even greater, requiring the patience, kindliness, and humor typical of excellent experienced teachers. In communities where class sizes are large or physical facilities inadequate, the teacher's responsibilities become increasingly burdensome. Nor should one be misled by the five-day week and six-hour day. In addition, there are extra-curricular activities to supervise, teaching plans to prepare, parent conferences to be held, professional meetings to attend, possibly youth groups requiring leadership. The good teacher, interested in his work, will find each day too short.

Every profession has disadvantages. Education is no exception. Among the least justifiable are the restrictions in some areas upon the teacher's personal life. These vary from state to state and particularly among communities within a state. Larger cities will regard teachers in much the same light as other professional workers. There would be general concurrence that teachers should be well-bred, cultured persons of good character. In all communities teachers will be censured for public profanity, excessive use of intoxicants, and immorality. So will other *professional* people. In small towns and rural areas restrictions frequently exceed those imposed upon other well-bred, cultured persons of good character; smoking, attitudes toward race and religion, unpopular political and economic views, and even the teacher's social life come under close scrutiny. As education becomes more professional, unreasonable restrictions will tend to disappear in most areas.

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[1] Adapted from his radio address over WHAM and published in *Journal of the National Education Association*, March, 1947.

Narrow-mindedness toward teachers probably will continue to exist in some parts of rural America for a long time. Prospective teachers should consider restrictive community demands when applying for positions. They should not accept positions in communities where it is impossible for them to adjust readily to prevailing attitudes.

Advantages in teaching. Those who are in the profession and enjoy teaching believe that the advantages greatly outweigh the possible disadvantages. In teaching there is never a dull moment. A teacher's day provides for a wide variety of interesting activities. There is a fascination about watching the pupils under your guidance grow more competent in innumerable ways. Much satisfaction is derived over a period of years as former pupils become successful members of their communities. Because education is a public service, there are abundant opportunities for association with numerous stimulating people, both inside and outside the profession. Responsible primarily for the learning of others, teachers are themselves in a unique position to develop intellectually. In addition, those who are interested in leadership roles find many opportunities for their talents in their own professional organizations as well as with community groups. Dr. Margaret M. Stroh says, "No profession gives so much opportunity to make of oneself a well-rounded, completely integrated personality." [2]

Other advantages. When one considers education as a career, there are other advantages meriting attention. Some of these are of long standing. Others represent newly-acquired gains or trends. Here is a short summary of the more important ones.

1. *A short work year.* In comparison with people in other occupations, teachers enjoy a short work year. The average teacher in the United States works between 170 and 180 days a year. He has vacations at Christmastime and in the spring and a long vacation of about three months in the summer. The summers may be used for *professional study, travel, relaxation, college teaching, other work experience, or writing,*

2. *Flexible working hours.* Teachers are required to work only a five-day week and to teach six hours a day. Though good teachers will spend more hours each day and may use their week ends for preparation, their schedules provide greater flexibility than many occupations in deciding the hours they devote to their professional work.

3. *Tenure.* Since 1930 there has been a definite trend nationally toward strengthening the security of a teacher in his position. Most states require a written contract. In some states the exact form is specified. Many states provide protective tenure to teachers in all or part of the state, usually after a probationary period. Under tenure a teacher may not be dismissed without cause. A prescribed procedure must be followed which allows a teacher opportunity for self-defense. In still other states teachers are on continuing contracts. This means they may not be released for the next school year unless notified before a specified date in the spring.

4. *Permanent disability benefits.* Teachers are fairly well-protected if they become permanently disabled and cannot continue to serve as teachers. Almost every state provides that teachers permanently disabled before normal retirement are entitled to a disability allowance if the teacher has served continuously for a certain length of time, normally ten years.

5. *Sick leave.* There is a trend in the direction of better sick leave provisions on a state-wide basis, though this advantage to teachers lags behind other benefits. Seventeen states have passed legislation entitling all teachers to a minimum number of days with pay for temporary sickness. Four other states have provided discretionary power to local school boards. Even in states where no law exists, school boards, particularly in medium-sized and larger communities, frequently allow teachers as many as ten days each year with pay in case of temporary illness or disability.

6. *Retirement compensation.* Every state has some form of teacher retirement compensation providing security to teachers after they are beyond the age of useful service. These retirement systems are constantly being improved and strengthened.

SALARIES IN EDUCATION

In recent years much has been said about the low pay of teachers. Unquestionably there are many excellent teachers who are underpaid; it would be difficult to estimate their worth. Their contributions to individuals under their guidance, and indirectly to society, are of inestimable value. It is also true that there are drudges and drones in the profession for whom any remuneration would be too much. The same comment could be made of other professions.

In general, teachers are not as well paid as they should be. Recently, as the public has become increasingly aware of the importance of teachers, there has been a trend in the direction of improved salaries. In more enlightened communities salary schedules have been developed that provide teachers with adequate starting salaries and with annual increases to desirable maximums. In order to understand salaries that may be available, a prospective teacher should be familiar with:

1. Average salaries of teachers throughout the nation.
2. Salary proposals of the National Education Association.
3. Salary schedules in better paying communities.
4. Monetary rewards to persons in leadership positions.

Average salaries of teachers. In 1950-51 it was estimated that the average salary of classroom teachers in the United States

TABLE I

Estimated Average Salaries of Classroom Teachers in Ten Highest Paying and Ten Lowest Paying States — 1950-51

Ten Highest		Ten Lowest	
New York	$3,995	Nebraska	$2,150
California	3,700	Alabama	2,125
Michigan	3,650	Maine	2,125
Maryland	3,586	South Dakota	2,125
Arizona	3,525	Georgia	2,010
New Jersey	3,500	North Dakota	2,000
Connecticut	3,493	Kentucky	1,925
Delaware	3,450	South Carolina	1,860
Massachusetts	3,450	Arkansas	1,700
Oregon	3,349	Mississippi	1,434

was $2,950. The average salary of all public school instructional staff personnel (teachers, principals, supervisors) was slightly higher, $3,050. Great variation existed among the states. In seven states the average salary of classroom teachers was $3,500 or better; in fourteen states the average was below $2,400. The average salaries of classroom teachers in the ten highest and ten lowest states in the Union are shown in Table I.[4] Since the trend is in the direction of better salaries, average salaries today probably are higher than in 1930-51.

Comparison with other occupations. In relation to other occupations the economic position of teachers has varied considerably, as the curves in Chart 2 illustrate. In 1939 teachers were in an economically favorable position when compared with all other occupations. With the impact of the war upon industry and the influence of labor organization, the situation was reversed; teachers' salaries fell substantially below the average earnings in other occupations. Since 1945, with teachers' salaries climbing steadily, the trend has been toward reducing the gap between teachers' salaries and those in other occupations. It is hoped that teachers may once again achieve their position of economic advantage. Although salaries for teachers are earned during a shorter work year, the figures are comparable. Teachers must live the year round. Their summers normally should be used for professional growth and relaxation rather than additional employment.

Purchasing power. The real test of how well teachers are paid is found in purchasing power. In 1939-40 the average salary of public school instructional staff (teachers, principals, and supervisors) was $1,441. In 1950-51 it was $3,050, or more than double. But during that period of time the cost of living increased substantially. Federal income taxes, which did not apply to public school teachers prior to 1939, further offset part of the salary gain.[5] Though the purchasing power of the

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[4] "Advanced Estimates of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools for the School Year 1950-1951," mimeographed by the National Education Association, Research Division.

[5] National Education Association, Research Division, *op. cit.*, p. 8

average public school instructional staff member increased slightly during that eleven-year period, it is obvious that in 1951 the average salary in education still was below what should be considered the professional level.

Salary schedules. An important trend in recent years has been the widespread development of salary schedules for teachers. In some parts of the United States, chiefly rural areas, there still are no teachers' salary schedules in effect. In these
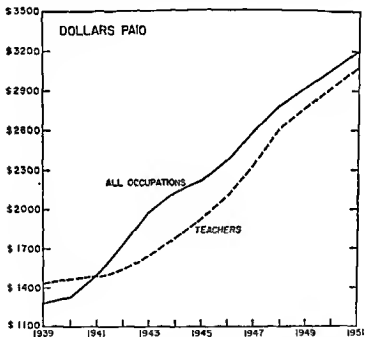

Chart 2.

areas salaries frequently depend upon the supply of teachers and the mood of the school board. This is not true of cities. In 1950-51 ninety-seven per cent of cities over 10,000 population and eighty-four per cent of cities under 10,000 population

reported they were operating under salary schedules.[6] Roughly ninety-seven per cent of all city school districts with schedules indicated that they were using single-salary schedules, which provide equal pay for equal education and experience, regardless of whether the teacher is on the elementary or secondary level.

Probably the most important factor in improving teachers' salaries has been the activity of teacher organizations: the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, and state and local education associations. These organizations have been influential in obtaining state minimum salaries for teachers in many states and in establishing salary schedules in most communities of any size.

N.E.A. salary proposals. To provide leadership in improving teachers' salaries, the National Education Association has designed a basic framework of professional salaries for teachers. This minimum professional salary schedule is shown in Table II. The position on teachers' salaries of the nation's largest education association is summarized in the article, "Professional Salaries for Teachers." [7]

Obviously, the N.E.A. basic framework for professional salaries is intended as a goal toward which the profession should work. In 1950 no school system had achieved all of its provisions. Many school districts had minimum salaries even higher than those proposed. A number had annual increments of $150 or more. However, no community had a schedule providing all of the maximum salaries suggested. Very few had a maximum as high as $4,500 for the baccalaureate degree.

Salaries in a few communities are beginning to approach the N.E.A. salary standards. In Table III are shown provisions in five salary schedules selected from the best in the country. These schedules support the belief that better salaries for teachers should be possible throughout the nation.

⁶ "Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-School Employees," *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXII, No. 2, April, 1951. (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951), p. 77.

⁷ Ralph McDonald, "Professional Salaries for Teachers," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 9, December, 1949, pp. 662-663.

TABLE II

Minimum Professional Salary Schedule [8]

	First Year*	Second through 14th Years	15th Year	Years beyond 15th
Bachelor's degree	$2,400	Annual increments to add $2,400	$4,800	Further increases for advanced education and proved usefulness
Master's degree	$2,600	Annual increments to add $2,600	$5,200	Additional annual increments; further increases to $6,000 or more
Year beyond master's	$2,800	Annual increments to add $2,800	$5,600	Further annual increments beyond those at master's level, top salaries beyond $6,000
Doctor's degree	$3,000	Annual increments to add $3,000	$6,000	Still further increments beyond those at the two year graduate level; top salaries substantially beyond $6,000

* For the teacher having full professional preparation as required for standard certification to teach in the particular field of instruction in which he is engaged.

TABLE III

Provisions in Five of Best Teachers' Salary Schedules in United States (1950-51) [9]

City and Salary Classes*	Minimum Salary	Annual Increments	Maximum Salary
Santa Monica, California			
Bachelor's degree (or equivalent)	$2,600	12 at $150	$4,400
Master's degree (or bachelor's plus 42 units)	3,200	12 at $150	5,000
Doctor's degree	4,200	12 at $150	6,000

* All communities listed have single salary schedules.

[8] *Ibid.*, p 662.
[9] American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of National Education Association, *Teachers' Salaries in 200 School Systems in Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in Population, 1950-51,* Educational Research Service Circular No. 1, 1951. And *Teachers' Salaries in 107 School Systems in Cities over 100,000 in Population, 1950-51,* ERS Circular No. 2, 1951. (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951.)

TABLE III (cont.)

City and Salary Classes*	Minimum Salary	Annual Increments	Maximum Salary
San Francisco, California			
Bachelor's degree (or equivalent)	$3,000	14 at $150	$5,100
Bachelor's degree plus 1 yr.	3,300	13 at $175	5,575
Bachelor's degree plus 2 yrs. ..	3,600	12 at $200	6,000
East Chicago, Indiana			
Bachelor's degree	$3,100	9 at $100	$4,900
		6 at $150	
Master's degree	3,200	8 at $100	5,600
		6 at $150	
		3 at $200	
Doctor's degree	3,500	Same as above	5,600
Bloomfield, New Jersey			
3 years	$2,400	14 at $150	$4,600
		1 at $150	
Bachelor's degree	2,400	16 at $100	4,800
Master's degree	2,500	18 at $150	5,200
Master's degree plus 1 year	2,600	10 at $150	5,600
Mount Vernon, New York			
4 years or less .	$2,475	15 at $175	$5,100
5 years or equivalent	2,675	17 at $175	5,650
Doctor's degree	2,875	17 at $175	5,850

* All communities listed have single-salary schedules.

Salaries in leadership positions. Educational administrators and supervisors usually are paid higher salaries than classroom teachers. However, teachers' salaries in some communities are higher than administrative and supervisory salaries in other communities of the nation and even of the same state. In general, salaries of superintendents, principals, and supervisors are related to teachers' salaries in their respective school districts. They will vary as much as teachers' salaries throughout the nation. For example, in 1950–51 city superintendents' salaries ranged from below $3,400 in three small communities to $32,500 in New York City. In the same year a few elementary, junior high, and high school principals were paid less than $1,900, while 185 elementary and junior high principals re-

ceived $9,000 or more, and 73 high school principals were paid at least $12,000.[10]

Salaries compared. A sensible way to compare salaries is to analyze those received by typical teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Median salaries in cities of the United States during the school year 1950-51 are shown in Table IV. More complete information is available in the excellent research bulletins of the National Education Association. From this table several conclusions may be drawn about typical salaries of educational workers in the year studied:

1. Salaries tended to be higher as communities increased in size. (Some may argue that these differences are offset by living costs.)

TABLE IV

Median Salaries Paid City School Employees in the United States in 1950-51 [11]

	2,500 to 5,000	5,000 to 10,000	10,000 to 30,000	30,000 to 100,000	100,000 to 500,000	over 500,000
Classroom Teachers	$2,831	$2,985	$3,150	$3,407	$3,593	$4,456
Supervisors of Music*	3,480	3,347	3,744	4,323	5,054	5,667
Supervisors of P.E.*	3,650	3,700	4,194	4,759	5,319	5,888
Elementary Principals**	4,053	4,147	4,365	4,629	5,001	6,293
Junior High School Principals**	3,775	4,267	4,652	5,237	5,649	7,115
High School Principals**	4,283	4,591	5,154	5,967	6,291	8,107
Superintendents of Schools	5,526	6,845	7,375	9,177	11,909	18,333

* Includes directors and assistant directors.
** Supervising principals only.

2. In cities of the same population supervisors and administrators received higher salaries than classroom teachers.

3. Salaries of administrators increased generally, from lowest

10 "Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-School Employees," *op. cit.*, pp. 68-71.

11 "Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-School Employees," *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, April, 1949.

to highest, according to the following pattern: elementary school principal, junior high school principal, senior high school principal, superintendent of schools.

4. In medium-sized and large communities supervisors and elementary principals received comparable salaries. In small and very large cities the salaries of supervisors were below those of elementary principals.

5. Classroom teachers in cities over 500,000 received higher salaries than supervisors and elementary principals in cities under 30,000.

Salaries of college teachers. Normally college teachers receive higher salaries than elementary and secondary teachers. However, when the professional preparation and high personal qualifications necessary for college teaching are considered, they probably are one of the nation's most poorly paid groups. Some of the average teaching salaries for 1949-50 in better paying colleges and universities are shown in Table V. Typical college teaching salaries throughout the United States would probably be substantially lower. Salaries of college teachers are generally higher in large universities and men's colleges, lower in women's, teachers', and junior colleges and in denominational schools.

It must be remembered that these salaries do not represent the top salaries outstanding persons may expect to receive. Nor do they include additional earnings through summer school and extension teaching, writing, speaking engagements, surveys,

TABLE V

Average Salaries of College Teachers for 1949-50 in
41 Selected Institutions in the United States.[12]

College Rank	Average Salary
Professor	$6,899
Associate Professor	5,189
Assistant Professor	4,177
Instructor	3,287

[12] American Association of University Professors, Committee on the Economic Status of the Profession, "Instructional Salaries in 41 Selected Colleges and Universities for the Academic Year 1949-50." (Mimeographed report.)

and consultant services. *In our great universities unusually gifted professors sometimes are paid salaries ranging from $10,000 to $15,000 annually. In some instances talented and productive writers in educational fields will earn considerably more than $15,000 a year.*

Educational Preparation of Teachers

In the opinion of most educational leaders the preparation of teachers on a national scale is not yet adequate. There is general agreement that a minimum of four years of education beyond high school graduation should be a requirement for all teachers' certificates. Many believe *that requirements generally should exceed the college degree*, as they have for regular certification in the high schools of Arizona, California, New York, and Oregon. The state of Washington has led the vanguard in requiring *five years* of college for regular certification in both elementary and secondary fields. Some expect that eventually education will compare favorably in its requirements and services with the medical and legal professions.

This expectation may be characterized by the doubtful as "wishful thinking." A study of trends, however, definitely supports those who believe that the minimum requirements for educational preparation will be increased. Prior to 1907 no state in the union demanded even high school graduation as a prerequisite for any teaching certificate. In that year Indiana established this requirement and was followed by Utah in 1911.[13]

Times have changed. In 1950 every state except Nebraska and South Dakota required some post-high school preparation for elementary certification; 19 states insisted upon two or three years and 17 states upon four years of college. At the same time all but six states required at least four years of college to qualify for a high school teaching certificate.[14]

Partly because of these increased certification requirements,

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13 Willard S. Elsbree, *op. cit.*, p. 350.

14 T. M. Stinnett, Harold J. Bowers, and E. R. Robert, "Interstate Reciprocity in Teacher Education-Certification," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. I, No. 1, March, 1950, p. 65.

and partly because of the tendency for larger numbers of people to graduate from college, there has been a remarkable growth in the educational preparation levels of teachers. In 1947-48 the *typical teacher in our nation was a college graduate.* As estimated in Table VI, 44.3 per cent held bachelor's degrees and 15.1 per cent masters degrees or higher.

TABLE VI

College Preparation of Teachers in 1947-48 [15]

College Preparation	Number	Per Cent
None	28,178	3.2
Less than 2 years	85,335	9.5
Two years, but less than 4 years	250,068	27.9
Bachelor's Degree	396,513	44.3
Master's or higher Degree	135,396	15.1
	895,496	100.0

Future preparation standards. During the years ahead it is anticipated that growth in the preparation levels of teachers will continue. It seems realistic to assume that:

1. A college degree will be required of all newly-certificated teachers in most states.
2. College work beyond the bachelor's degree will be required for all certification in many states.
3. There will be a decreasing distinction on the undergraduate level between the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers.
4. Teacher preparation will represent a desirable balance between general and professional education.

Furthermore, it is reasonable to believe that educational leaders and the American public will insist increasingly that only well-educated, emotionally balanced, competent persons shall be entrusted with the important task of teaching our nation's youth.

PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF EDUCATION

In the United States census reports, teaching is classed as a profession. What distinguishes a profession from other voca-

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[15] "Teachers in the Public Schools," *op. cit.,* p. 132.

tions? The following are some of the major characteristics of a profession:

1. A well-organized body of scientific information and techniques that enables members to make a distinctive contribution to society.
2. High standards of preparation, admission, and in-service growth.
3. A strong service motive.
4. Pay and other benefits that enable members to enjoy a professional standard of living.
5. A strong professional organization, with a code of ethics governing its members.
6. Pride of membership in the professional group.

Since the turn of the century, education has become increasingly professional. In some parts of the country it has reached full professional status; in other areas it still is en route, particularly with respect to pay and preparation standards. By joining and participating in professional organizations, teachers can help hasten the day of arrival.

One evidence of the growth of education as a profession is the great increase in strength of the National Education Association. From 8,466 members in 1917, it expanded to an organization of 500,000 members in 1950. With its many separate departments, committees, and commissions, it is one of the most powerful and influential groups in our country today. A prospective teacher should become acquainted with the purposes and scope of the National Education Association by consulting the most recent *N.E.A. Handbook*. In this handbook will be found the N.E.A. code of ethics governing its members.

Professional Growth

Competent teachers are cognizant of limitations even after long years of service. This is logical, for the field of education is broad, dynamic, and ever changing in response to changing circumstances. Determining one's needs and doing something positive about them is the process of professional growth.

For the young teacher, here are several general questions to serve as a guide in analyzing professional development:

1. Am I growing in the capacity to understand my students better — their needs, interests, and abilities?
2. Am I becoming more skillful in meeting these needs by using appropriate methods and materials?
3. Do I utilize new ideas to vitalize my teaching?
4. Am I cooperating with others to develop an excellent educational program for my school and community?
5. Are my relationships improving with students, parents, other teachers, administrators, and supervisors?
6. Am I helping to advance the standards of teaching as a profession?

For a longer, more detailed list of questions relating to professional growth, one should consult self-evaluation lists such as the one by an Indiana teacher, Dale Morehead, "A Checklist of Professional Qualities." [16]

Professional growth should be a continuous, never-ending process. For the individual, its chief goal is to become a more effective teacher, administrator, or supervisor. The ways in which one grows professionally are numerous. The pattern will not be identical for any two individuals. A person's pattern should be determined by his own needs and the situation in which he is working.

Professional growth activities. Activities through which one grows professionally are included in the following list: [17]

1. *Workshops:* (a) pre-school, (b) post-school, (c) continuing, and (d) other
2. Extension and correspondence courses
3. Summer school attendance
4. Committees to study specific problems
5. Professional reading or study

[16] *The Teaching Profession Grows in Service,* Official Group Reports of the New Hampshire Conference, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950), pp. 121-122.
[17] *Ibid.,* p. 24.

6. Observation of successful teachers, school systems, and colleges
7. Professional meetings: (a) local groups and (b) national, state, and district
8. Travel
9. Participation in programs of professional groups: (a) as a leader and (b) on programs or committees
10. Leaves of absence: (a) sabbatical and (b) other
11. Demonstration teaching
12. Forums providing opportunity for participation in discussions
13. Conferences providing opportunity for individual or group discussions
14. Independent research
15. Participation in community activities
16. Pursuance of hobbies related to instruction

PERSONAL-SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Closely related to professional growth is the personal and social development of teachers. As indicated earlier, teaching is hard work. When done well, it is time-consuming. One easily could spend all his waking hours on professional responsibilities. No one interested in the welfare of children would recommend such a program. Though a teacher should take his responsibilities seriously, he should avoid becoming a grind or a drudge.

As one begins his career, he may want to copy this anonymous poem and place it where it will be seen often:

A TIMELY WARNING

If your nose is close to the grindstone rough,
And you hold it down there long enough,
In time you'll say there's no such thing
As brooks that bubble and birds that sing.
These three will all your world compose:
Just You, the Stone, and your poor old Nose.

To be effective, teachers should stay fit — physically, mentally, spiritually. Capable teachers are more competent when

they take care of their personal and social needs. Young teachers will be better teachers if they can achieve the following objectives: [18]

1. Distribute "time and efforts wisely among professional activities, personal pleasures, reflections, meditation, relaxation, and rest."
2. Keep abreast of the times.
3. Participate in at least one community activity.
4. Cultivate some friendships outside the teaching profession.
5. Take advantage of the cultural opportunities in the community.
6. Develop recreational interests, including at least one outdoor activity, such as golf, fishing, gardening, or hiking.
7. Use money wisely.
8. Keep from being overburdened with financial and other worries.
9. Stay physically fit; have a physical check-up once a year.
10. Maintain a pleasing personal appearance, voice, and manners.
11. Develop your potentialities fully.
12. Try to see yourselves as other see you.

Study and Discussion

1. Write a statement outlining your reasons for considering education as a career.
2. Analyze the laws and practices regarding teacher tenure in your state. What are the advantages and disadvantages of teacher tenure?
3. Study the level of teachers' salaries in your state. What are typical starting salaries, annual increments, and maximums? How do they compare with those offered in other states of the nation?
4. Gather information on the salaries of different kinds of school administrators and supervisors in your locality or in your state. What are the opportunities financially in leadership positions?
5. Describe the educational preparation required for teachers, administrators, and supervisors in your state.

[18] *Ibid.*, pp. 128-131.

6. Discuss the status of education as a profession with experienced adults of your acquaintance. Has teaching reached the professional level in your state? What are the prospects for the future?

7. Study the program of the chief professional organization for teachers in your state. How active is this organization? How effective? Enumerate some of its major accomplishments.

8. Discuss with a local teacher or administrator the sixteen professional growth activities outlined in this chapter. What opportunities for professional growth are provided in your local school system?

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3

The Developmental Tasks of Adolescence

Paul E. Eiserer

Educational psychologists generally agree that an understanding of the motives, values, attitudes, and goals of students is essential if the teacher is to guide successfully their learning activities. Changing conceptions about the purposes of the secondary school over the past 50 years have included an increased emphasis on the teacher's need for knowledge and understanding about the processes of human development. It is a basic assumption of this chapter that this trend is sound and that teachers will be successful in their endeavors to the degree that they achieve insight into the behavior of their students.

THE CONCEPT OF THE DEVELOPMENT TASK

It is not our purpose to insist that the reader can understand human behavior only by adopting the point of view here expressed. It is suggested, however, that the behavior of students cannot be comprehended by teachers without a systematic conceptual framework of theory. Without a systematic viewpoint, observed behavior will seem inconsistent, contradictory, fragmentary, opportunistic, and often inexplicable. A framework, in varying degrees conscious to the observer, provides a

more orderly, meaningful context within which observations can be related and behavior understood, predicted, or controlled. A viewpoint that is becoming widely accepted as a way of understanding the behavior of the adolescent has as its core the concept of the *developmental task*. It has been defined by Havighurst in the following manner:

"A developmental task is a task which arises at or about the same period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks." [1]

This definition suggests that there are common learnings which must be mastered by every adolescent in our society if individual happiness and social adaptability are to result. This notion can be applied to any stage of human development from infancy to senescence: that is, there are skills, attitudes, appreciations, and values which must be learned at a particular age level if the individual is to function effectively at that stage and move progressively toward maturity.

The idea of a developmental task may become clearer by considering what the organism must learn during infancy and early childhood. Everyone is familiar with the necessity for learning how to walk, to talk, to manage the processes involved in eliminating body wastes, to behave with awareness of sex differences, and to get along with parents and siblings. All these required learnings are developmental tasks for infancy and early childhood. Students of human development have been able to identify significant tasks for practically every major phase of the life cycle.

The discussion in this chapter is devoted to those common learnings that are cultural imperatives for the adolescents in our society. These developmental tasks are generalizations growing out of the scientific study of human development under a wide variety of circumstances taking into account such factors as sex, age, and socio-economic level.

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[1] Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948), p. 6.

SOURCES OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL TASK

There are at least three main sources of developmental tasks. The first of these rises from within the individual himself, and involves adjustments typically identified as factors of physical maturation. This type of adjustment may best be illustrated by the task of learning how to walk—a task that is primarily a function of physical maturation. A second source of developmental tasks is the culture in which the individual lives. The pressures of society demand certain competencies that must be achieved by the individuals in that society. For example, the necessity for developing capacities of good citizenship arises primarily as a cultural demand. Most developmental tasks are, however, products of the interaction of the organism and the culture. For example, although learning how to read might seem to be clearly a cultural demand, it is also dependent on maturation factors. The third sources of developmental tasks is an outgrowth of the interactional processes between the organism and the environment. We might describe this source as the ego, personality, or self. The self becomes a motivational factor in its own right and poses for the individual certain learning tasks which must be mastered. The individual's system of personal values and goals is an illustration of this third source of developmental tasks.

Nine developmental tasks have been identified and discussed by Havighurst:[2]

1. Accepting one's physique and accepting a masculine or feminine role.
2. Developing new relations with age mates of both sexes.
3. Acquiring emotional independence of parents and other adults.
4. Achieving assurance of economic independence.
5. Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
6. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
7. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.
8. Preparing for marriage and family life.
9. Building conscious values in harmony with an adequate scientific world picture.

Nothing sacred is claimed for this classification. One investigator might classify them into six categories, another into

[2] Ibid., pp. 30-63.

twelve. *The only contention here made is that the behavior of adolescents will become more understandable if this general framework is kept in mind.* The following six developmental tasks will be discussed in this chapter.

1. *Accepting one's physique and becoming a man or woman.*
2. *Developing new relationships with age mates of both sexes.*
3. *Gaining emotional independence of parents and other adults.*
4. *Achieving assurance of economic independence: selecting and preparing for an occupation.*
5. *Developing civic competence and a sense of social responsibility.*
6. *Developing conscious values to live by.*

In considering the developmental tasks, two points should constantly be kept in mind. First, all of these tasks are interrelated. Adolescents may be attempting to achieve several at the same time. For example, except for purposes of discussion, one cannot separate the bodily changes that are continuously taking place from the efforts of adolescents to achieve new relationships with one another, nor can there be a dichotomy between the necessity for developing conscious moral values to live by and the processes whereby adolescents choose a particular way of making a living. Secondly, these tasks are considered as group characteristics. The knowledge that all adolescents must come to terms with their developing bodily changes does not give us insight into how a particular adolescent boy or girl achieves this task. The particular problems associated with helping individuals achieve their tasks will be discussed in a later section.

As the reader thinks about the various tasks under discussion he is urged to ask himself the following questions:

1. How does the behavior of the adolescent reflect efforts on his part to achieve these tasks?
2. What are some of the consequences when these tasks are not adequately realized at the appropriate stage of development?
3. How do these tasks differ in the upper, middle, and lower social classes in our society?

ACCEPTING ONE'S PHYSIQUE

It is a matter of common observation that significant physical changes occur in the body during the second decade of life. We are aware that bodily changes occur continuously from conception through senescence. However, a greater acceleration in bodily changes takes place during adolescence than at any other time of life except during the eighteen months following conception.

Bodily changes in themselves do not necessitate difficult problems of adaptation. Problems of adjustment requiring our attention seem to occur primarily under three conditions: first, when the changes are abrupt or sudden and, through lack of knowledge and insight, the person cannot understand them; second, when the changes are in conflict with the individual's concept of himself, that is, how he views himself; third, when the attitudes of other people reflect lack of understanding and acceptance of the changes. Since people are continually judging, evaluating, comparing, and moralizing about adolescent behavior, problems for many adolescents are inevitable. This would suggest that if the attitudes of older people were more realistic and understanding, adolescents would encounter fewer adjustment problems. However, adults being what they are at the present time, adolescents will have problems for some time to come. What the schools might do to reduce this source of tension for the adolescent will be discussed in a later section.

Studies of adolescents indicate that boys frequently become concerned about sex organ development (including nocturnal emissions and increased size of sex organs), height, fatness, unusual facial features, and acne. Girls typically become concerned about menstruation and other changes associated with puberty, tallness or fatness, and irregularity of facial features.

Changes associated with puberty. Changes associated with sexual maturation have been discussed in considerable detail by Greulich.[a] These include accelerated growth of the sex organs, appearance of hair in the pubic region, and deepening

of the voice. Because of attitudes in our culture it is very difficult for adolescents to escape anxieties associated with these sexual changes. This is particularly true of the American middle-class culture which places rather severe limitations on discussion of sex problems. For example, Kinsey reports that problems associated with masturbation are most severe among adolescents who grow up in middle-class society.[4] Until more intelligent sexual education, based upon sound scientific knowledge, becomes a part of every adolescent's rightful heritage, there will be many problems in this area. Modern psychiatry, particularly, suggests that many adult maladjustments are traceable to the maladaptations in this particular period of life.

Other bodily changes. Other readily apparent body changes during the adolescent period include accelerated increases in height and weight, and changes in body proportion, especially those related to the head, face, trunk, legs, and arms. Significant changes also occur in the skeletal system, that is, in the size and structure of bones. Motor capacities undergo modification and there are changes in the skin and hair.

In all of these changes the factor of individual differences must be kept in mind. Each person has his own pattern of changes, and harm can be done by unjustified comparisons of one person with another. For example, most height and weight charts are based upon the *average* rate of maturing, yet the growth rates of many individuals differ in velocity. Increases in weight are attributable primarily to muscle and bone development. By maturity the muscles may constitute about sixty per cent of body weight in contrast to thirty per cent during childhood. Thus, a given individual may be gaining weight even though his outer appearance suggests that he is getting thinner. The prospective teacher may obtain detailed information about the extent and intensity of these various changes from textbooks on adolescent growth and development.[5]

Many of these changes create tensions in adolescents that

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[4] A. C. Kinsey, W. B. Pomeroy, and C. E. Martin, *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male* (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1948).

[5] E. B. Hurlock, *Adolescent Development* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949).

are not readily open to observation. Some of these can be discovered only through discussions. Others are rather apparent in overt behaviour. It is an accepted generalization from psychology that developmental powers are associated with a tendency to use them in life situations. Fully developed powers, involving either sexual maturity area or increased bodily strength, are likely to be accompanied by tendencies toward use. Although the increased physical power of youth may be tried out in athletic contests, the increased sexual power is not so readily open to exploration and discovery. For this reason problems associated with sexual maturation are likely to be among the most crucial for adolescents in our culture. As noted before, this is particularly true of youth in middle-class culture. How some of these changes prompt new exploratory behavior on the part of adolescents in boy-girl relationships will be discussed in the next section.

DEVELOPING NEW RELATIONSHIPS WITH AGE MATES OF BOTH SEXES

Until the age of sexual maturity, with its attendant increase in the awareness of sex impulses, boys tend to associate primarily with boys, and girls with girls. Changes during puberty, however, require serious new adjustments for which the adolescent has no previous pattern of behavior. We are all familiar with the awkward, fumbling behavior in the presence of the opposite sex which is characteristic of this age. This demand is so great that adolescents will work at it, in school or out, with or without the help and guidance of parents and teachers. The achievement of this task was probably more difficult in an earlier time when young people were segregated by sex in most of their educational activities. The fact that we have overcome these difficulties of segregation does not mean that all problems are solved. Bringing young people together makes adjustment learnings possible but does not guarantee them. In considerable measure the patterns for future heterosexual adjustment and happily married living are being formed at this period of life.

Relationships with the opposite sex constitute no great problem in lower-class cultures. Evidence suggests that sexual experience is commonly associated with efforts at developing new social relationships. However, in middle-class culture an extensive variety of new social patterns must be learned. Problems of courtship and dating become very complex and many kinds of skills must be learned. The basis for a successful marriage is more likely to be made during this period of adolescence than at any other time. One obvious manifestation of the increased sensitivity of girls is the great amount of time they spend improving their physical appearance by using cosmetics and wearing clothes that will fit their personality and be accepted by "the gang." Boys begin to take more interest in good grooming. They become concerned about their manners and about learning appropriate and socially accepted ways of approaching the opposite sex. Every experienced teacher has seen a wide variety of activities that can be understood only in terms of their significance in helping young people learn how to become adapted to one another. Undoubtedly previous experience in the home with members of the opposite sex, parents or siblings, determines to a considerable extent whether these new demands can be learned in stride or whether they will be accompanied by a great deal of anxiety and tension.

In the present period of rapid social change, since the definitions of the roles of men and women are not clear-cut, the task of adolescence in learning how to assume a masculine or feminine role has become very difficult. Boys are expected to become manly, self-assertive, and self-directive in ways that are new to them. They are expected to relinquish patterns of submissiveness and docility which are so highly prized during childhood. For some boys this poses a tremendous problem; others take it in stride. At one time girls were able to make this transition more easily since the adult feminine role was also considered a submissive and docile one. However, in recent years there has been a change in this pattern. Many girls now face a conflict in that they are expected to assume a

dual role in our modern society; they must not only prepare themselves for marriage and motherhood, but also for a career.

The ambiguities of the masculine and feminine role in contemporary society cannot be resolved by parents and teachers. However, they do have an opportunity to help young people understand the conflict and to make adequate compromises.

Probably at no other time in their lives are people as conservative and conforming as during the period of adolescence. Although a developing individuality can be seen in young people, it operates within very narrow boundaries. Adolescents are much more influenced by the demands of their own peer culture than by the demands of any other group, including adult society. Young people have a compulsion to be like one another, especially within the smaller sub-groups to which they belong. Teachers particularly are aware of the unwritten code that governs the behavior of young people in school situations. One should not, however, consider these attitudes reprehensible. They are developmentally desirable, for within the framework of their peer culture young people are learning valuable lessons of social interaction that are important for their development into socially sensitive and responsible young people.

Young people will band together in opposition to adults if they feel that their particular world is being threatened. Adults who interpret this opposition as a threat to their authority will not be helpful to young people in their efforts to achieve these common learnings. One outstanding characteristic of the interpersonal relationships of young people at this age might be called impulsivity or fickleness. Mood swings are likely to be extreme. The boy who is ready to die for a friend today is prepared to fight him tomorrow. Loyalties are expressed rambunctiously. Masculinity may be asserted through telling dirty jokes, shoving other people around, or bragging about trivial achievements. It takes time to learn the balance between release and control of impulses which is characteristic of a mature person. One of the danger points in our own culture is the tendency to suppress these manifestations of behavior which

can best be understood through expression. When feelings are strong, mistakes are likely to be made. It is important to realize that these mistakes have to be made if proper learnings are to take place. What is required of adults is not punishment, but understanding. Many books have been based upon scientific investigation of the characteristic ways in which young people attempt to achieve this new demand for developing skills in interpersonal relationships.

GAINING EMOTIONAL INDEPENDENCE OF PARENTS AND OTHER ADULTS

The purpose of this task is to achieve emotional independence within a framework of continued affection and mutual respect. At birth the individual is almost completely dependent upon adults for the satisfaction of all of his needs. Growing up becomes a process of gradual emancipation from a condition of complete dependency into one where the individual with his own resources is capable of meeting most of his psychological and physical needs. Independence is an achievement. That this task is one of the most inadequately learned in our culture is suggested by Harry A. Overstreet.[6] Psychiatrists suggest that difficulties in this area are among the most common sources of adult maladjustment. Strecker attributes much of the emotional immaturity of soldiers during World War II to the fact that they did not learn this developmental task adequately.[7]

The emotional climate of the home in which the adolescent is growing up has much to do with the readiness with which he can achieve this task. In homes where parents are dominating and over-protective, little opportunity is provided for the growing child to learn independent behavior. Then during adolescence the boy or girl is thrust abruptly into a world that demands considerable initiative and self-direction for successful development. In homes that might be described as democratic and permissive, the achievement of independent "self-hood" has

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[6] H. A. Overstreet, *The Mature Mind* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1949).

[7] E. A. Strecker, *Their Mothers' Sons* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1946).

been a continuous process since birth. Whether this task becomes a problem or not is strongly conditioned by previous experience.

The achievement of emotional independence under the best conditions, however, is not an easy task, nor always seemingly a desired one. One observes much ambivalence, that is, wavering between *wanting to be independent* and *wanting to be dependent on others*. The adolescent may find that his first awkward steps toward independence lead him into difficulty and his reaction may be to withdraw to the protecting wings of his parents. However, this difficult task must be achieved if mature adulthood is to be realized.

This cutting of apron strings is evident in much of the adolescent's behavior. A rebellious and sometimes militant attitude toward teachers and other adults reflects the conflict which is going on as adolescents seek to find a balance between their independent and dependent needs. In many ways teachers become parent substitutes. The struggle of the adolescent becomes a part of the teacher-pupil relationship. Teachers have many opportunities to help young people understand this struggle and to resolve it. Adolescents are likely to become quite belligerent toward their parents, getting into numerous conflicts about seemingly trivial issues. This need to assert the developing self is an imperative one for adolescents in our culture. Some of the common conflicts between adolescent boys and their mothers, for example, are about use of the family car, eating habits, school marks, spending money, table manners, and personal habits.

Girls frequently get into difficulty about automobile riding with boys at night, unacceptable school marks, eating habits, care of smaller siblings, and use of spending money.[8] Conflicts between adolescents and their parents are more common in the middle class than in the upper or lower class because middle-class parents with their mobility consciousness are very much concerned about controlling the behavior of their children.

8 Paul H. Landis, *Adolescence and Youth* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945), p. 236.

For example, attitudes of middle-class people toward education as the ladder for social mobility prompt them to push their children toward as high an educational achievement as possible. This not only leads to conflict over school achievement but also imposes a delay in the achievement of other tasks such as the establishment of a family of their own.

Since most of the occupations available to lower-class children require very little in the way of educational preparation, they achieve a basis of livelihood much earlier. Furthermore, many parents in the lower class are not particularly interested in what their children do or become. Hence there is much less social control and continuous supervision of their activities. Each generation tends to go its own way. The economic factor in the upper class usually is not significant enough to cause parents to sacrifice for their children; thus their youth are more free to be on their own at an earlier time.

The importance of parental attitudes and their influence upon the readiness with which adolescents achieve this developmental task cannot be over-emphasized. Parents who are themselves emotionally immature cannot create the kind of environment which is good psychological growing space for the emotional development of their children. This leads to the kind of circular delinquency about which Overstreet speaks.[9] This does not mean that some adolescents do not transcend the handicaps of their home environment. It does suggest, however, the extreme unlikelihood that this will happen in most instances. This fact throws upon the schools a major responsibility for helping those young people who are handicapped by an inadequate home environment. Teachers may find themselves the objects of intense emotional identification by some students. If they can understand what is happening and help young people acquire an insight into the processes, they will be able to contribute very valuable learnings to those young people. Teachers who are indifferent to or consciously avoid this challenge neglect one of their most challenging educational opportunities.

[9] H. A. Overstreet, The Mature Mind (New York: W W Norton, 1949).

ACHIEVING ASSURANCE OF ECONOMIC INDEPENDENCE: SELECTING AND PREPARING FOR AN OCCUPATION

The achievement of economic independence in our society has for a long time been imperative for men. It is becoming increasingly important for women. It requires no Marxian interpretation to recognize that the way a man makes a living contributes significantly to his total adult adjustment. It is probably the point around which many of his other values are oriented. The prestige and ranking of his occupation determine much of his social activity. The ability to stand on one's own feet economically is an important part of society's definition of a man. The feeling that one is contributing to the economic welfare of society contributes to a sense of personal significance. It is very important for every boy in our culture to find his place in the world of work.

Not so long ago choice of an occupation created no real problem for young people. In a self-contained family, future occupations for young people were pretty well determined by the family pattern. Increased industrialization, with its division of labor and specialization of function, has made the self-contained family outmoded. The economic contributions of men in our society are found chiefly in the processes of mass production industry, professional services, and governmental occupations. Women typically have a more limited range of choices. It is estimated that up to sixty per cent of the jobs in American industry no longer require much previous preparation. Frequently it is not a question of doing what one wants, but of discovering a function in the economic world which one can fill and then learning to like it. This is particularly true in the lower classes. Most of the work performed by people in the lower classes is of the unskilled variety. People of the middle classes use various kinds of education and training to achieve upward mobility. Most of the discussion that follows about the *selection of and preparation for an occupation* is particularly applicable to middle-class youth.

The process whereby an **individual** makes a vocational choice involves at least three steps. The first step is for the individual

to learn about himself. *A person needs to know about his competences, aptitudes, interests, and intelligence. He must know as much about himself as possible.* The second step is to know about the world of work — the characteristics of various jobs and the opportunities that are available in the immediate and long-range future. Finally, the individual must select from the wide range of jobs a few that offer him some opportunity. Then he must do what is necessary to prepare himself for one of these families of occupations.

The foregoing should not suggest that this is an easy process. Because of the characteristics of the American middle class, a realistic understanding of one's self and selection of the proper vocation are sometimes very difficult. Frequently, parental pressures stand in the way. Because of some personal frustration, parents sometimes project their own unfulfilled ambitions onto their children and attempt to force them into occupations for which they have neither interest nor ability. There are also cultural obstacles such as the prestige values attached to certain occupations. For example, studies show that many high school youngsters aspire to professional and white-collar jobs, although, in general, these aspirations are unrealistic either in terms of their capacities to achieve them or in terms of the opportunities available in our society.

Much of the exploratory learning of young people in relation to future occupations has to be vicarious. At the present time, although the situation is improving, there are available for young people far too few opportunities to experience different types of work. *This fact probably accounts for much vocational maladjustment.* Failure to achieve this particular developmental task is fraught with many unfortunate circumstances. A man who is unhappy in his vocation is likely to be unhappy in other areas of his life. The number of adults in our society who seek help from various questionable agencies emphasizes the great need for more authoritative vocational guidance during adolescence.[10] One of the serious curricular limita-

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[10] Lee Steiner, *Where Do People Take Their Troubles?* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945).

tions of our school system is that too few opportunities are provided for use of the hands in various craft and shop activities.

Even if the individual has a realistic understanding of himself and a comprehensive knowledge of the world of work, and brings these into intelligible relationship, he still faces one important fact which is a source of anxiety among present-day youth. Will there be an opportunity to utilize his trained powers? The control of mass production processes by a few people means that the chances are overwhelming that he will work for someone else. The days of the entrepreneur in a pure sense are long since gone. Youth are dependent on other people for economic opportunities; they do not in any significant sense make them for themselves.

DEVELOPING CIVIC COMPETENCE AND A SENSE OF SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Society has given the school the primary responsibility for helping young people grow into effective democratic citizenship. Effective citizenship in today's complex society requires a considerable degree of skill in the arts of communication, and competence in solving social and personal problems. Carrying one's share of the load and helping others in need are important aspects of our democratic idealism, and our institutions seek to make many young people anxious lest they fail to carry out these obligations. Members of the lower classes typically do not participate in civic activities. There is little developed sense of social obligaton to other people. If people vote at all, they vote in terms of some personal interest. The middle and upper classes generally develop in their young people a sense of obligation in political and social affairs.

As with other developmental tasks, this one can be learned only if opportunity for learning is provided. It is generally agreed that the school is the social institution that has the best opportunity to instill in young people the attitudes and values which will prompt them to perform the tasks of a democratic society. That present accomplishments leave much to be de-

sired can hardly be questioned. However, schools are working to find more effective means for developing these attitudes and values in our young people.

Through school activity programs young people are provided freedom to operate programs in their own way and to assume responsibility for their use of that freedom. Student government activity can provide effective learning situations, particularly when the adults insist not only that the decisions adolescents make involve real issues but also that the consequences of decisions are borne by those who make them. (See Chapter 11.)

The consequences of failure to achieve this important task are readily apparent to every thinking person. The society that places too high a premium on personal aggrandizement at the expense of social obligation runs a grave risk. Some critics of the present social scene attribute many of our difficulties to the fact that we have over-emphasized individualism at the expense of helping young people sense the needs of their fellow men.

DEVELOPING CONSCIOUS VALUES TO LIVE BY

This task implies the fact that an individual cannot live effectively without some guiding values. He must have a sense of direction for his life, some criteria for making decisions involving questions of morality. The values of modern science and religion are frequently a source of conflict to people in the middle and upper classes of our society. Members of the lower classes typically live by dogma or without any conscious values at all.

The fact that many adolescents stop attending church during the second decade of life has led some people to feel that adolescents are not interested in religious or moral questions. This is not the case. Adolescents may not be interested in theological questions, but they are interested in questions involving moral choices. Observations of young children indicate that the concepts of morality which guide them in their everyday behavior are unconsciously a reflection of the values dominant in their family situation. For the child, morality is likely

to be objective and impersonal. Developmentally, however, toward adolescence a religious awakening takes place. A period of doubt sets in. This is not to imply that some young children, especially more intelligent children, do not raise questions about the beliefs given to them by their parents and the church. But there is a more general state of doubt in most adolescents during the second decade of life. Adolescence is a period in which young people question many of their previous beliefs and convictions. They begin critically to reevaluate their ideas about many phenomena, including morality. This examination of the basic assumption of one's actions is a desirable development.

Socrates said a long time ago that the unexamined life is not worth living. And it is not just idealism that prompts young people to ask some rather fundamental questions about life and death. Various situations in which they are living necessitate more mature answers than they have previously achieved. Perhaps they have experienced death in the family or serious illness, and questions begin to arise in their minds. More commonplace, however, are the many situations of everyday life. For example, boy-girl relationships raise questions that can be answered through discovery of a set of values which can serve as criteria for making choices.

It has been pointed out by Landis[11] that we are living in a time when moral values are in a very ambiguous state. Adults themselves are not sure where they are going. Because of this many adults have ignored these questions and left the adolescent to shift for himself. Others conscientiously try to help the young think through the confusion of our times. We cannot expect young people to develop values much more stable than we ourselves achieve. If we cannot settle the questions in our generation, we can at least accept the adolescent as a participant in the process of evolving new values.

For certain young people the school contributes significantly to their moral development. One study of adolescent character

reports a correlation of .74 between character reputation and school achievement.[12] Good social adjustment in school leads to desirable character development. Experiences that provide security are likely to result in more willing acceptance of the existing moral code. But the school does not provide this learning for other boys and girls, particularly those whose values in the home are at great variance with the school.[13]

The adolescent needs help in resolving the doubts and anxieties that assail him when he is expected to assume new patterns of social behavior to meet the new conditions of his developing nature. We cannot assume that anxieties in themselves have desirable effects. They are only the motivating factors toward the seeking of *more effective solutions.*

THE INDIVIDUAL AND HIS DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

The concept of developmental tasks provides scientific guideposts whereby teachers may make sense out of behaviors they observe in their students. It provides a broad framework within which teachers may see meaning in seemingly inconsistent, unrelated behavior. Without this framework they are likely to designate observed behavior as "teen-age nonsense." They should keep in mind, however, that these tasks are generalizations about the common learnings which must be achieved by all young people on the road to maturity.

An understanding of these generalizations is not enough to interpret the behavior of a particular individual. It is necessary to understand how these tasks are being accomplished on an individual basis. For example, consider the task of adjusting to a changing body. While it is true that every boy and girl must adjust to bodily changes, every individual accomplishes this task in his own unique way. Some adolescents make the adjustments with very little conflict and tension; other become greatly concerned about their developing physical maturity.

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[12] R. J. Havighurst and H. Taba, *Adolescent Character and Personality* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949), p. 179.

[13] A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949).

How Joe Smith is adapting to *his* changes can be discovered only by *learning about Joe Smith personally.* Norms help the teacher to see adolescents as a group, but to understand Joe Smith as an individual the teacher must go beyond these norms. She must discover how Joe feels and thinks and what he wants and values.

Let us consider how Joe might use one or more of the known adjustment mechanisms to meet his problems. He might make a frontal attack on the problem: get information from books, talk to adults, parents and teachers, and seek to understand what is happening to him. Then he might try out his new-found powers in situations, and evaluate the consequences. This is the approved mental hygiene approach.

He might feel guilt about the changes and become aggressive in efforts to conceal his shame or embarrassment. He might brag unduly, or fight others, or pick on those weaker than himself.

He might withdraw from the situation by daydreaming his troubles away. In this way he has no chance of experimenting with his new abilities to test them in experience. He might worry himself sick, might actually get a bodily ailment as a solution to his tensions.

The attempt he makes will have a better chance of success if he gets help from a teacher who understands his problems and is interested enough to help him. Attempts to spell out the meaning of the process of understanding have been made by the authors of *Helping Teachers Understand Children* [14] as follows:

1. Behavior is caused by a series of factors that can be identified. Therefore, boys and girls are understandable and educable.
2. Every student must be accepted emotionally and respected and valued as a human being.
3. Every student is unique and teachers should constantly seek information about each of their pupils which will enable them to know the facts that are influencing the pupil's development and behavior.

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[14] Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1945), p. 20.

4. There are common *developmental tasks* that *all students* face during the several phases of their growth, and complications often arise as individuals with varying characteristics and backgrounds work at those tasks.

5. The more important generalizations that describe and explain human growth, development, motivation, learning, and behavior must be considered.

6. The scientific approach should be used: gather and organize *relevant information about a child*, find *the scientific principles* to which this information points to determine the particular individual's maturity level and explain his overt actions; use these explanatory principles together with the pertinent data as the basis for helping the youngster meet his problems of growing up.

Teachers who can put the foregoing into practice will be of great help to adolescents in achieving their developmental tasks.

THE SCHOOL, THE TEACHER, AND DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

Helping the adolescent achieve these developmental tasks is a fundamental part of the responsibility of the teacher. Although some of these tasks may seem to be more the responsibility of the home than the school, they cannot be categorized in this fashion. Adolescents are working constantly in the achievement of these interrelated tasks, and it is the responsibility of the school and the home to supplement each other in helping the adolescent master these learnings. What, then, can schools do to aid adolescents learn these tasks with greater efficiency?

The school. It was pointed out earlier in this discussion that some developmental tasks emerge primarily from the necessity of the organism to readjust to sexual and other bodily changes. Other tasks have their primary source in the culture, in the demands that society makes upon young people, such as the requirement for effective citizenship. Tasks that emerge primarily from within the individual probably will be worked at with or without help by adults in our society. The tasks that are external in origin and represent demands of society are less likely to be worked at by the individual without external stimu-

lation. In view of this, what is the function of the school in helping young people achieve successfully a comprehensive range of developmental tasks? This question is concerned with the objectives of the secondary school in our society. They are discussed at considerable length in other parts of the book.

It is a common belief among modern educators that scientific study and investigation should provide the basis for determining what procedures are most likely to help them realize their objectives. Educational philosophy may be considered the deliberate attempt to agree on what objectives should be sought in our educational institutions. What procedures are most likely to promote realization of these objectives can best be determined by experimental investigation. It is within this framework that generalization about the growth and development of young people are pertinent to a discussion of secondary education. Scientific study of the behavior of boys and girls makes available tested generalizations that should be utilized in guiding educational development. For example, a study of the learning process results in some generalizations about how learning takes place. How learning occurs is not a question for philosophical deliberation; it is a problem for scientific investigation. It is not a question of traditional versus progressive education. In our society, we are committed to the view that through the scientific method we can find the best way to gain desired results. In consequence of this belief, shall the results of scientific study provide the basis upon which we shall organize school experiences? On the assumption that this is the intention of most modern educators, one may conclude that knowledge about developmental tasks has very real implications for the modern secondary school.

It is probably true that the modern secondary school is still subject matter oriented — the emphasis remains on the requirement that young people master certain bodies of knowledge rather than that students be aided in life adjustment. Leading thinkers in secondary education have emphasized for a generation that mastery of knowledge is only one of the goals of education, but practices have been only slightly influenced by such thinking. Critical observation of most high schools in

this country would lead the observer to the conclusion that few teachers have real insight into the problems that really bother our young people, and of those who do have insight, only a few are adequately trained to help young people solve their problems. There is a very noticeable lag in the formulations by educational leadership about what needs to be done and the actual practices that take place day by day in high school classrooms.

On the assumption that progress takes place by proceeding from where we are toward something which offers more possibilities a number of authors have provided helpful discussions about the relationships of subject matter to the learnings required by developmental tasks.[15] These authors suggest how teachers might, even in the conventionally organized high school, help adolescents through classroom and extracurricular activities in achieving their tasks more adequately. For example, courses in biology provide opportunity for learning facts and attitudes about physical changes. Home management courses deal directly with tasks related to family life. Through literature, problems of the roles of men and women may be considered. Extracurricular activities may provide rich opportunities for young people to learn citizenship roles. Dances, athletics, and special interest clubs may help young people learn how to behave toward one another.

A considerable reorientation and reorganization of the high school is necessary if these accumulated facts about human development are to be used to help young people achieve a more effective maturity. No one at this stage of our knowledge can offer a prescription for a curriculum that will guarantee these tasks will be maximally learned. However, enough evidence about the inadequacy of present procedures has been accumulated to suggest that a great deal of experimentation is in order if high schools are to help young people more effectively than in the past.

The teacher. Just as the schools operate within a larger cul-

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[15] H. L. Caswell (ed.) *The American High School.* Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946). See also Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948).

tural framework, the teacher operates within the society of the school. The teacher is likely to ask the question: "All things considered, what might I do within the framework of my classroom to help young people achieve more adequately their developmental tasks?" Before this basic problem can be solved, the teacher must ask herself several other questions. What is my concept of my role as a teacher? What are my understandings of the nature of adolescent growth and development? What goals am I trying to achieve through the experiences young people are likely to have in my classroom? *The teacher's concept of her function in the classroom probably plays an important part in determining what she does in the classroom.* For example, teacher A, whose self-concept includes the attitude that she knows what is good for people, will behave in accordance with such a concept. This teacher is not likely to work very hard to provide experiences that will help young people achieve a larger measure of self-direction and self-responsibility.

Teacher B, who sees in the behavior of her students evidence of efforts to achieve more maturity, behaves differently. Because of her perspective and framework of thinking, she is more likely to provide experiences that lead toward more maturity.

Teacher A, who feels that students are not competent to achieve any measure of democratic behavior, is not likely to allow students to help plan, execute, and evaluate learning activities. She is likely to exercise rather direct control in these activities, thus working out her own concept of what people are like and what is possible for them to achieve. Teacher B, who assumes that young people have varying degrees of ability to learn democratic behavior, is likely to provide opportunities for students to plan, execute, and evaluate learning activities. Classroom procedures, then, are a reflection of the self-concept of the teacher.

At this point the reader should give thought to the question: "Are we considering a problem of educational philosophy or are we asking ourselves in what way we are more likely to achieve what we are aiming for?" From the generalization that

people learn what they are doing, it is rather apparent that teacher B is more likely to achieve the objectives of modern education. An important goal of modern education is to promote development of the individual's ability to behave democratically. More specifically, this implies opportunity to learn how to do things for oneself, how to stand on one's own feet. Obviously, then, teachers who provide little opportunity for young people to learn these things are failing in their jobs.

Perhaps a word here should be said in defense of teachers. Like their students, teachers are doing the best job they can in the light of their own backgrounds, experiences, understandings, and values. If we are to provide secondary schools that will help young people more adequately solve the problems of their experience, we have to do more than merely change the verbalized objectives of school people. We must develop teachers who are personally capable of carrying on the practices that modern science has suggested are pertinent to our present objectives.

The foregoing suggests the importance of re-evaluating present-day teacher education. We are too prone to believe that what a teacher knows in the intellectual sense is all that is needed to provide adequate learning experiences for young people. Modern psychologists have demonstrated rather conclusively that how the teacher feels, what her values are, what dynamic tendencies toward action are operating in her own personality, probably have a more decisive effect upon the kind of learning that takes place in the classroom than her so-called intellectualized formalizations about the nature of the teaching functions. The origins and present functioning of her own personality play an important part in determining the actual curricular experiences within the classroom.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. You are a teacher in a Junior or Senior High School. What experiences do you think you could provide in the classroom which would give young people practice in learning to meet the various developmental tasks discussed in this chapter?

2. Compare the efforts of the school, home, and church in promoting the achievement of developmental tasks a) for you personally, b) for most of the adolescents in your community.

3. Suggest some of the problems of society today which might be interpreted as resulting from ineffective and inadequate learning of developmental tasks during adolescence.

4. Select from your own acquaintance two adolescents who grew up in different sub-cultures, one from the middle class, the other from the lower class. Show how efforts to achieve the same developmental tasks probably lead to different behaviors. What aspects of their behavior seem to be held in common, i.e., are independent of social class influences.

5. What kinds of changes do you think should be made in the high school to improve their ability to help young people achieve their developmental tasks more adequately?

6. As a teacher, suggest and discuss some specific ways in which you might help young people become sensitive to and learn to accept responsibility for citizenship possibilities within the school.

7. Sex education in Junior and Senior High School is a controversial issue among educators and parents. Take a stand on this issue, indicating fully the basis for your position.

8. Using the concept of the developmental task, contrast the problems of adolescence in two widely divergent cultures such as our own and that of Samoa.

9. Describe the specific ways in which an athletic program can contribute to the achievement of developmental tasks by boys and girls.

10. Suggest how a teacher might evaluate whether boys and girls were progressing in achieving the requirements stated in this chapter.

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Secondary Education in Democracy

Paul B. Jacobson

Any political state that hopes to perpetuate itself must indoctrinate its young people with the beliefs that underlie the political theories practiced in that state. Thus, the Nazis in Germany in the early thirties immediately took over the schools and staffed them with politically reliable Nazi teachers. Many competent teachers who were not Nazis were dismissed as a consequence. Under the military government, these incorruptible teachers have become the nucleus of the teaching corps seeking to indoctrinate German young people with democratic beliefs.

Over There and Over Here

Indoctrination in Russia. Similarly, the Communist party in the U.S.S.R. has taken over and greatly expanded the school system. Only teachers who are loyal to the party are allowed to instruct young people. That they themselves receive rigorous indoctrination is attested by a recent translation entitled *I Want to Be Like Stalin.*[1] Reading such a book is uncomfortable, but

[1] George S. Counts (trans.), *I Want To Be Like Stalin.* Translated from the Russian text in Pedagogy by B. P. Yesipou and K. N. Concharov. (New York: J. Day Co., 1947), p. 150.

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revealing, for it indicates vividly how the young Russians are indoctrinated in beliefs that are diametrically opposed to those of democracy. Their school system undoubtedly is effective in building the kind of the Communist party and the Polit-buro want in the U.S.S.R. Complete dependence on and absolute service to the state, the unimportance of the individual, and the importance of the party are all to be found in the teacher's manual referred to above. The vigor and ferocity with which they fought to defend their homeland is evidence of the fact that the Russian young men and women, with few exceptions, believed *implicitly* in their form of government.

Training for Democracy. We, too, must continue to teach the basic tenets of our system. But too often they have been absorbed and lived rather than made explicit; young people are not readily able to explain precisely *what democracy means to them.* Although our young men fought and died for democracy in two world wars, if asked to define the democracy for which they fought they were almost universally inarticulate. Democracy has been learned in part on the job, in part in the home, but to a much greater extent in the public schools of the United States. There is no more democratic institution in our nation than the public school system. Certainly it has faults; often it is inadequately financed, some teachers do not practice democracy. But with its inadequacies it is still a good instrument to teach democracy.

The public school is the nearest approach to a classless society that can be found in the United States, in which everyone, *irrespective of his origin,* has as much equality of opportunity as his native endowments and home environment allow. Fair play is taught in the classroom, in the playground, and on the playing field. Everyone has his chance to learn skill in our better physical education classes and to demonstrate his competence in intramural programs which help the young people achieve the developmental tasks — the psychological bases of adolescence. Although all students cannot play in the interscholastic contests, skill is the deciding factor, not social status in the community or parental income. Everyone has an opportunity

to try out for the class play, but some who have jobs cannot afford to do so. Everyone has a chance to be valedictorian, but those who receive no encouragement at home or who have modest talents have only a theoretical chance.

Foundation stones. "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you" is practiced more widely in the public schools of the United States than in any other institution, with the possible exception of the Church. Quite probably, democracy is practiced more generally in the elementary than in the secondary schools, but high schools, too, are becoming more democratic as they enroll even larger numbers of 14-17 year-old boys and girls and the newer research findings about human growth and development are incorporated into high school teacher-training programs.

Democracy can be made explicit. Its precepts — the foundation stones on which democracy rests — are imbedded in the literature of our cultural heritage. They are found in writings of our founding fathers — poets, statesmen, historians — and in the religious heritage of the Hebraic-Christian faith. They need merely to be expounded clearly and made a part of the life of every young person. For example, Thomas Jefferson wrote: "I have sworn upon the altar of God eternal hostility against every form of tyranny over the minds of men." If this foundation stone of democracy is understood and accepted, it implies that equality of educational opportunity should be provided for everyone, irrespective of his place of residence or the size of the family income. Public Law 346, the so-called G.I. Bill, has done a great deal since 1945 to provide this educational equality at the college level. In the economic realm, democracy means old age assistance and welfare benefits to unfortunates. To others its means the opportunity to earn and enjoy an honest living without trampling underfoot someone who is weaker.

"And ye shall know the Truth and the Truth shall make you free" (John 8:32) indicates the never-ending need for research into and reorientation of court procedure, medical practice, school organization, and human nutrition — to mention only a few — in the light of expanding knowledge. Democracy relies

on the free intellect and follows its findings. Communism relies on the dogmatic pronouncements from the politburo. Witness, for example, the exile and presumed death of eminent Russian biologists who would not follow the officially accepted theories of genetics.

Democracy and truth. Democracy asks that there be a search for truth; truth then stands on its merits, accepted by men of good will who determine their course on the basis of fact rather than fancy. The conclusion that genius is common, and the circumstances fitted to develop it very rare, indicates a faith in the human mind and a belief that ability is widespread throughout the human race — red, black, white, yellow, or brown skin color does not determine intelligence or ability. But the environment — the circumstances — vary so that equality of opportunity has not been realized.

Consequently, if we believe in democracy we cannot allow good schools in rich communities and poor schools in poverty-stricken communities where the number of children per family is certain to be larger than in wealthy communities. As a result, we have had "equalization laws" in most of our states to make educational democracy through school opportunities roughly comparable.

If we believe in democracy, physical good health of the citizens is necessary. If society wishes to promote health and well-being among its six- to eighteen-year-old children, it could expand the partially subsidized school lunch program, it could insist on enough doctors to give each child a thorough physical examination once in three years, and enough nurses to do the necessary follow-up work with the parents. Such developments are not only possible but desirable.

The poet sings of another aspect of democracy. Walt Whitman in *For You, O Democracy* writes:

> I will make the most splendid race the sun ever shone upon
> I will make divine magnetic lands
> With love of comrades,
> With the life-long love of comrades,
> I will plant companionship thick as trees . . .

Democracy means men of good will, friendship, comradeship, love of liberty, a willingness to live and let live so long as the rights of others are not infringed.

Democracy and consent. The importance of consent is central in democracy, as is the right of orderly protest and the right to try to make a minority opinion the majority. Lincoln uttered the hope ". . . that government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth." There can be no hereditary ruling class if we believe that abilities are widespread among the people.

Obviously we cannot carry out a project, be it the enactment of a new law, or the construction of a new high school building in the community, until a majority of the citizens approve. But it does not mean we must delay building the school until there is unanimous consent. Since majority consent is not always secured easily or quickly, democracy has been criticized as a slow procedure. And it is. But there is no alternative if we believe in consent as a major social policy.

In the political realm democracy means consent at the ballot box. So democracy is noisy; frequently it is raucous. Sometimes its procedures are undignified. But the right to conduct a campaign for political office with sound trucks, hillbilly bands, or the snapping of red suspenders is uncontested. It is part of the price we pay for consent. And if the voters are fooled and elect an incompetent, that experience too is part of the democratic process, for the people can always "turn the rascals out" by electing someone else next time, or in some of our western states by the recall.

So in democratic schools young people gain experience by electing class officers, representatives to the council, the president of the student body, and other student officials. The school has an obligation to teach boys and girls how political parties win elections. The school also has an obligation to help boys and girls develop criteria for electing leaders. In some cases this is done through social-studies classes. Ideally, statesmanship is the resolution or compromise of topics so controversial that citizens turn them over to elected representatives

who are expected to find satisfactory solutions without compromising themselves. State legislatures, the federal Congress, and school boards, at their best, perform this function. *The right to freedom is indivisible.* If we want to earn the right to enjoy it, we must be prepared not only to fight for it, but to extend it to everyone. We cannot morally expect freedom for ourselves if we withhold it from others. It must be extended in the economic area as well as in the political. It embraces civil rights and decent schools everywhere. It affords respect to all men for their accomplishments irrespective of *income or position in society.*

The essence of democracy. The foundation of democracy is older than the United States. It drew upon the Hebraic-Christian faith. It was nourished by the Renaissance and the Reformation. It grew within the British Commonwealth and drew from the common law. It has been stated in a hundred ways by our historians, our statesmen, our jurists, our poets, our common citizens. Perhaps it can be summarized in the words of an eminent historian:

> To have faith in the dignity and worth of the individual man as *end in himself,* to believe it is better to be governed by persuasion than by coercion, to believe that in the long run all values are inseparable from the love of truth and the disinterested search for it, to believe that knowledge and the power it confers should be used to promote the welfare and happiness of all men rather than to serve the interests of those individuals and classes whom fortune and intelligence endow with temporary advantage, (these are the values)—which since the time of Buddha and Confucius, Solomon and Zoroaster, Plato and Aristotle, Socrates and Jesus, men have commonly employed to measure the advance and decline of civilization, the values they have celebrated in the saints and sages whom they have agreed to canonize.[2]

Political Democracy includes the ballot, the representative assembly, party politics, constitutional safeguards, and fair play. Each of these has undergone some revision since the *Republic was founded,* and will undergo more changes, for

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[2] Carl Becker, *New Liberties For Old* (New Haven Yale University Press, 1941), pp. 149-151.

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Obviously we cannot carry out a project, be it the enactment of a new law, or the construction of a new high school building in the community, until a majority of the citizens approve. But it does not mean we must delay building the school until there is unanimous consent. Since majority consent is not always secured easily or quickly, democracy has been criticized as a slow procedure. And it is. But there is no alternative if we believe in consent as a major social policy.

In the political realm democracy means consent at the ballot box. So democracy is noisy; frequently it is raucous. Sometimes its procedures are undignified. But the right to conduct a campaign for political office with sound trucks, hillbilly bands, or the snapping of red suspenders is uncontested. It is part of the price we pay for consent. And if the voters are fooled and elect an incompetent, that experience too is part of the democratic process, for the people can always "turn the rascals out" by electing someone else next time, or in some of our western states by the recall.

So in democratic schools young people gain experience by electing class officers, representatives to the council, the president of the student body, and other student officials. The school has an obligation to teach boys and girls how political parties win elections. The school also has an obligation to help boys and girls develop criteria for selecting leaders. In some cases this is done through social-studies classes. Ideally, statesmanship is the resolution or compromise of topics so controversial that citizens turn them over to elected representatives

who are expected to find satisfactory solutions without compromising themselves. State legislatures, the federal Congress, and school boards, at their best, perform this function. The right to freedom is indivisible. If we want to earn the right to enjoy it, we must be prepared not only to fight for it, but to extend it to everyone. We cannot morally expect freedom for ourselves if we withhold it from others. It must be extended in the economic area as well as in the political. It embraces civil rights and decent schools everywhere. It affords respect to all men *for their accomplishments irrespective of income or position in society.*

The essence of democracy. The foundation of democracy is older than the United States. It drew upon the Hebraic-Christian faith. It was nourished by the Renaissance and the Reformation. It grew within the British Commonwealth and drew from the common law. It has been stated in a hundred ways by our historians, our statesmen, our jurists, our poets, our common citizens. Perhaps it can be summarized in the words of an eminent historian:

To have faith in the dignity and worth of the individual man as end in himself, to believe it is better to be governed by persuasion than by coercion, to believe that in the long run all values are inseparable from the love of truth and the disinterested search for it, to believe that knowledge and the power it confers should be *used to promote the welfare and happiness of all men rather than to* serve the interests of those individuals and classes whom fortune and intelligence endow with temporary advantage, (these are the values)—which since the time of Buddha and Confucius, Solomon and Zoroaster, Plato and Aristotle, Socrates and Jesus, men have commonly employed to measure the advance and decline of civilization, the values they have celebrated in the saints and sages whom *they have agreed to canonize.*[2]

Political Democracy includes the ballot, the representative assembly, party politics, constitutional safeguards, and fair play. Each of these has undergone some revision since the Republic was founded, and will undergo more changes, for

[2] Carl Becker, *New Liberties For Old* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1941), pp. 149-151.

democracy is an evolving concept shaped by a complex of dynamic forces.

Each citizen is now guaranteed the right to cast his vote as he sees fit, in secret, but women have had that right for only about thirty years. Before the Civil War, Negroes were enslaved in this nation with no rights of citizenship. Before the Industrial Revolution in America, the working classes had no franchise, and only freeholders were permitted to vote. In New England, at one time it was necessary to be a member of the Congregational Church in order to vote. In Oregon it was 1949 before the right to vote in school elections involving bond issues was granted to those citizens who did not own real estate or stocks on which tax was paid in the commonwealth.

Party politics illustrates the evolving nature of democracy. Although the constitution does not provide for political parties, they have developed out of conflicts of principle and policy, and are now an essential element of democracy.

Constitutional safeguards of men's civil liberties are most frequently thought of in connection with the political concept of democracy. Specifically guaranteed are freedom of speech, freedom of religious worship, the right of assembly, the right to petition concerning a grievance or wrong, writ of habeas corpus, due process of law, and other safeguards contained in the Bill of Rights.

In the communistic state the one party system, nonsecret elections, the concentration camp for political dissenters, and arrest without warrant are in bitter contrast with our belief.

Still other political safeguards are the separation of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the government. The system of checks and balances was designed to prevent seizure of power.

Democracy as an economic philosophy. Democracy furnishes the favorable climate in which the American free enterprise system operates. American democracy is characterized by freedom of enterprise with each man encouraged to follow a calling of his own choice, provided that it does not interfere with the best interests of society. He is protected in the pos-

session and enjoyment of the fruits of his labors after paying his proportionate part of the cost of necessary government and general welfare.

Economic democracy has changed greatly from the rugged individualism that characterized the establishment and growth of great financial empires, which under a *laissez faire* philosophy drew away from the democratic ideal. Enlightened self-interest has long characterized our democracy, but it has been encountering increasing restriction. The New Deal exemplified the possibilities and problems of a planned economy, which is now the subject of vigorous debate and searching inquiry. The Communist state guarantees a job – but a bare subsistence; democracy has produced a good living for nearly all of the citizens.

Also a part of economic democracy is the organized labor unions with their machinery for collective bargaining, mediation, and arbitration. The right to band together for the promotion of collective interests that are not incompatible with the general welfare is basic to democracy. The right to strike vital services such as schools, and fire and police protection cannot be tolerated. What shall be done about strikes in certain other basic industries such as railroad transportation has not been determined.

Democracy as an order of society. As a society, democracy stresses social mobility without artificial barriers to advancement from one level of society to another. The son of a street cleaner may become a college president; a rail splitter and a haberdashery salesman have become presidents of the nation. There is no limit to the aspirations of members of this democracy, and in countless cases these aspirations have been achieved.

Democracy as a way of life. Democracy as a way of life makes the individual the center of things. He is not only free to develop his abilities to the maximum, but is helped and encouraged to do so. The maximum development of each individual is considered to be in the best interest of all. Democracy is founded on a supreme respect for the worth of each indi-

vidual personality, whatever the origin or status of the individual may be. Communism makes the state the center; the individual's development is unimportant. He is sacrificed ruthlessly for the state. In a democracy, the state serves the people; in a dictatorship, the people serve the state.

Democracy as a social faith. While democracy is all of the foregoing things: a form of government, an economy, an order of society, and a way of life, to picture it as a social faith brings out more clearly the ideals for which it strives. These ideals are the product of the best thought and practice of men throughout the ages. The Educational Policies Commission includes the following articles in this faith:

> First, the individual human being is of surpassing worth.
> Second, the earth and human culture belong to all men.
> Third, men can and should rule themselves.
> Fourth, the human mind can be trusted and should be set free.
> Fifth, the method of peace is superior to that of war.
> Sixth, racial, cultural, and political minorities should be tolerated, respected, and valued.[3]

Role of education in a democracy. More important than training an enlightened citizenry is the development of the conviction that democracy is the best way of life. "Education in America must build within all citizens it touches a love for the democratic way of life based on the freedom of the individual. The love of this way of life presupposes the assumption of the responsibilities as well as the rights of free men."

A further indication of the role of education in a democracy is the statement that "democracy exists only in the patterns of behavior, feeling, and thought of a people. Let these patterns be destroyed and democracy itself is destroyed."[4] Insuring the continuity of these patterns of behavior, feeling, and thought presents the public school with a tremendous task.

If the school can transmit the social heritage to the oncoming generations, indoctrinating each individual with an under-

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[3] *Education of Free Men in American Democracy*, Educational Policies Commission (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1941), p. 33.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 48.

standing of the democratic philosophy and a love for the democratic way of life, and if it can develop young people with an awareness and a will to act, it will have accomplished its mission.

Americans have great faith in their schools. Henry S. Commager states:

No other people ever demanded so much of education as have the American. None other was ever served so well by its school and educators.

From the beginning, education has had very special, and very heavy, tasks to perform. Democracy could not work without an enlightened electorate. The various states and regions could not achieve unity without a sentiment of nationalism. The nation could not absorb tens of millions of immigrants from all parts of the globe without rapid and effective Americanization. Economic and social distinctions and privileges, severe enough to corrode democracy itself, had to be fought. To our schools went the momentous responsibility of inspiring a people to pledge and hold allegiance to these historic principles of democracy, nationalism, Americanism, and egalitarianism.[5]

Commager lists four outstanding contributions of the American schools:

(1) The creation of an enlightened citizenry in order that self-government might work. The historian comments:

Has our investment succeeded? None can doubt that it has. Americans have, in short, made democracy work. They established a nation, held it together, and expanded the original 13 to 48 states — while steadily pursuing the grand objectives of the framers of the Constitution: their "more perfect union" *did* establish justice and domestic tranquility, and secure the blessings of liberty. Through all their history they elected *some* mediocre presidents but never a wicked or a dangerous one; settled all problems by compromise except the greatest one, slavery, and perhaps that could not be settled by compromise, they revealed in every crisis an ability to select able leaders. Only a people taught self-government could record these achievements.[6]

(2) The fostering of national unity.

National unity is a part of the democracy we have described earlier in this chapter. It stems from the contribution of our great teachers, historians, poets, and national heroes who have given us a common store of beliefs and traditions. It was fostered by the unparalleled expansion — the westward movement, the development of transportation — and a vigorous, restless people.

(3) The Americanization of from two to eight million foreign born persons in each decade following 1840 until the turn of the century. This, too, was performed with distinction.

(4) The provision of social cohesion. Commager continues:

This most heterogeneous of modern societies — profoundly varied in racial background, religious faith, social and economic interest — has ever seemed the most easy prey to forces of riotous privilege and ruinous division. These forces have not prevailed; they have been routed, above all, in the schoolrooms and on the playgrounds of America. In the classroom, the nation's children have lived and learned equality — all subject to the same educational processes and the same disciplines. On the playground and the athletic field, the same code has ruled — with the reward of honor and applause heartfully given to achievements to which all could aspire equally. The roster of "foreign" names on our high school and college football teams has seemed with a feeble joke to many an unwitty radio comedian. Who can seriously doubt that the cause of democracy is served when it is a Murphy, a Schwartz, a Groglio or a Levitsky that the cheering stands applaud? [7]

Some of these tasks have been carried out in the elementary schools, but in themselves they have not had time to consummate all the tasks. It has remained for the secondary schools to perform a substantial part of the total job.

Causes for the Growth of High Schools

Development of the West. The United States has been endowed with great natural advantages which have enabled the nation to grow rapidly and have helped the citizens to prosper mightily. It has a soil of unparalleled fertility, a favorable climate, and natural resources in minerals — 40 per cent of the

[7] Ibid., p. 47.

world's supply — waterpower, and forests ideal for rapid industrial development. In addition most of the citizens who came to this nation were ambitious to *develop these resources for their private gain and for the development of the nation.*

Because the nation was so large, invention and technology tended to flourish. For example, the midcontinent raises excellent corn; this made that area a great producer of pork. In turn, the refrigerator car was developed to transport the meat from the packing houses to all parts of the nation. Inventions increased from 80,000 in 1870 to about 425,000 in 1930. Such developments were the logical conclusion of the democratic heritage of applying the findings of research to the problems of the day. As Jefferson said, "Research and Experiment have been indulged, and error has fled before them."

The Civil War was scarcely over before a group of industrial capitalists, capable, shrewd, hard-driving men, set out to build fortunes and industrial empires; and in the generation ending about 1890 they succeeded not only in building *individual fortunes* but in conquering the continent. Formerly anyone who wished to begin anew could go west; after 1890 the free land of value had largely been taken.

Decline in agriculture. With the development of new inventions came the growth of the corporation, first in the East and later in the great industrial areas of the middle West. As corporations grew and industry became ever more productive, workers tended to live together and villages became cities. As the cities grew, so did the school systems. It is little more than a hundred years ago (1837 or 1838) that the first superintendent of schools was appointed. His job, then as now, was to coordinate the school system into a unit rather than to have a series of unrelated and uncoordinated schools in a number of neighborhoods.

As cities grew, parents were more insistent on sending children to school for longer periods of time. In a rural environment there were always necessary tasks that were not only fitted to the abilities of children, but were part of their education in the sense that they provided work experience. In an

urban setting there were far fewer tasks for children to perform, particularly as man became more productive and employers learned that children, because they produced less, even though paid meagerly, were expensive laborers. So the laws reflected the sentiment of the citizens. Children were compelled to go to school.

Growth of cities. By 1890 about three fifths of the citizens in the North Atlantic states lived in cities, but nationally less than 40 per cent of the people lived in urban areas. By 1950 over three-fifths of all citizens lived in urban areas throughout the entire United States. In addition, the percentage who lived in metropolitan areas with more than 1,000,000 population had increased by leaps and bounds. The shift to urban living changed both institutions and attitudes. The family became smaller, divorce became more prevalent, and the place of women in the economy changed. The following quotation indicates some of these changes:

> . . . The city gave rise to new problems of housing, health, sanitation, recreation, education, and government. The typical city presented a picture of vivid contrasts: of riches and poverty; of palatial residential districts and of slums where living and vice flourished; of high ideals and of graft and racketeering; of places for high cultural advancement and of human degradation. But it was in the city, with all its lights and shadows, that much of what men call progress was taking place — in education, in art and literature, in science and invention, in social betterment.[8]

But as we shall see, more and more young people who were born in rural areas were obliged to move to urban areas to earn a living. Agriculture has experienced a long-time decline from early pioneer days when 95 per cent of our population had to work on the soil, until modern times when somewhat less than 20 per cent of the labor force is engaged in agriculture. In some way the city must provide employment not only for its own youth, but for the surplus farm population as well.

Impact of technology. The essence of the impact of tech-

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[8] Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *The School in the American Social Order* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947), p. 454.

nology can be seen in one simple fact. Each year the amount of work produced per worker has increased about 4 per cent. Thus, over a period of 20 years, in many industries the output per hour has doubled. The phenomenal increase in production during World War II indicates that the trend has continued although, as less efficient workers were added and we "scraped the bottom of the manpower barrel," the increase tended to slow down. Industrial productivity has increased markedly since 1945.

As man becomes more productive, workers, particularly young people, must shift from one occupation to another and not infrequently some of them are unemployed for long or short periods of time between jobs. This implies, of course, that schools in which students train for occupations are more likely to serve their citizens well by providing broad training rather than too specific training for a particular job. Then, too, parents, members of labor unions, and citizens generally are favorable to continuing young people in schools for a longer period of time. The age at which youth may leave school has increased from fourteen to sixteen, and in some of the more enlightened states, particularly on the Pacific coast, the law requires school attendance until the age of eighteen.

What was true in industry was also true in agriculture. In addition to feeding three other persons in his family, the average American farmer, after allowing for the services of the hired man, now provides food and fibres for twelve people living in American cities or non-farm areas, as well as three more persons living in foreign countries — a total of eighteen persons in all.

Crop production has increased two and one-half times from 1840-1930 and agricultural production per worker has apparently increased about three times.

Growth of high schools. The growth of the American high schools has been one of the phenomena of contemporary life. Since 1890 the high school population has doubled, roughly speaking, each decade for fifty years. Nowhere else in the world has there been such a popular increase in secondary

education. Various reasons for the growth have been advanced. Many persons wanted their children to have opportunities which they had not enjoyed. Some complacent educators have assumed the high school was so good that the enrollment automatically increased. As we shall see in this chapter, there is little justification for this assumption. Others have observed that adolescents like to attend school because they can mingle with their peers. This undoubtedly has kept many young people in schools. A few have asserted that compulsory attendance laws caused the increase. The evidence to be presented later indicates that the laws were the result of social conditions rather than the cause of education growth.

TABLE 1

Enrollment in Secondary Schools 1890–1950 [9]

Year	Enrollment Number	Public and Private Per Cent Increase over 1889-90	Population Number	14-17 Years of Age Per Cent Increase over 1889-90	Number Enrolled per 100 Pop. 14-17
1889-90	357,813	....	5,354,653	....	7
1899-1900	695,903	94.5	6,152,231	14.9	11
1909-10	1,111,393	210.6	7,220,298	34.8	15
1919-20	2,495,676	597.5	9,753,561	44.5	32
1929-30	4,799,867	1241.4	9,341,221	74.5	51
1939-40	7,113,382	1888.0	9,720,419	81.5	73
1941-42	6,923,538	1835.0	9,619,110	79.6	72
1943-44	6,020,890	1582.7	9,298,244	73.6	65
1945-46	6,187,305*	1629.0	8,780,020†	64.0	70
1947-48	6,505,000**	1746.0	8,567,971†	60.0	76

* Based on advanced sheets from the Biennial Survey 1945-46.

** Based on "Forecast of annual total enrollment in Public and Non-public Schools combined" by E. M. Foster and H. S. Conrad in *School Life*, 32 (March, 1950), p. 88.

† Information received by letter from David T. Blose, Specialist in Educational Statistics, United States Office of Education on March 29, 1950.

Many persons have felt that the school-leaving age was raised because of humanitarian feelings toward our young people. This is partly true. But in far larger part it is due to

achieving an urban civilization and a high productivity in business, agriculture, and industry which enabled the citizens to live well without using the children in production. In 1910 the percentage of children ten to fifteen years of age in gainful occupations was 18.4 per cent. Twenty years later in 1930 only 4.7 per cent were so engaged.[10] Then, too, we note that during the years of World War II the number of young people enrolled in high school dropped over 1,000,000 between 1940 and 1944 as fourteen- to seventeen-year-old boys and girls left school to enter the service occupations when their older brothers and sisters went into the war industries and the armed forces.

After the end of World War II, the high school enrollment began to rise again. To state the matter bluntly, the American high school has become a "way of life" where teen-age boys and girls are kept and educated until it is time for them to go to work. Because our productivity is so great, we have kept ever larger numbers of young people in high school. No other nation has sent such a large number to secondary schools; perhaps no other nation can yet afford to do so.

There are a number of other ways the young people could have been used. We could have had a large standing army; that is not in keeping with our democratic traditions. It would be much more expensive than a system of public high schools. We could have kept the young people at work and retired older workers at an earlier age. This, too, would be more expensive than schools. And it does not fit well into our democratic traditions. We could have kept the young people at work and reduced the work-week for everyone. We could have kept everyone at work, but we would have produced more than we consumed, thus making it necessary to give away the product or to cause an over-supply and to court a serious depression. Consciously in part, in greater part unconsciously, we have placed our young people in school because with our tremendous productivity we could afford to do so.

Thus it has been necessary to work out an educational pro-

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[10] Newton Edwards, "Educational Implications of Population Change in the United States," *Journal of Teacher Education*, March, 1950, p. 9

gram richer in content and extending over a longer period of years. Guidance programs, work experiences, the development of a varied program of extra-curricular activities, Smith-Hughes vocational training programs, and the vast program of curriculum revision and additions were due to the growth of the schools, conditioned by productivity.

Citizenship training became more complex in order to prepare for the varied problems confronting an urban civilization and not even dreamed of in a simpler rural economy. Intelligent use of leisure time and wise consumption of goods and services also took their places beside the older task of passing on the cultural tradition of the western world.

Growth in freedom of women. Opportunities for women in business and the professions has increased manyfold since Civil War days. From the period when women could only hope to be homemakers, society has changed so that it not only tolerates, but often demands, the services of women in productive employment. The reserve of "womanpower" which came into the service and productive industries as well as into the armed forces was one of the factors in winning the war. And as women increasingly entered the productive economy, it tended to reduce the percentage who married and the size of the families of those who did. This in turn made it easier to continue children in schools for a longer period of time.

The Growing Population

Changes in population. As the United States became an urban industrial nation, there came a change in the family pattern. Between 1790 and 1940 the family size gradually decreased from over six to about two children. The change to the small family pattern began in New England and spread westward through the Middle Atlantic through the industrial areas of the Great Lakes and on the Pacific Coast.

The trend to smaller families was world-wide. In France, for example, the total population declined. In Italy and Germany, Mussolini and Hitler tried to reverse the trend with bonuses for large families.

Chart I shows graphically how the size of the family has
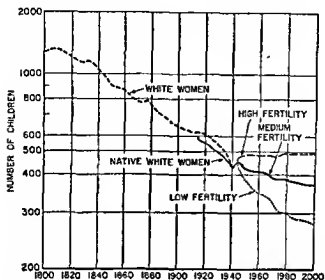
CHART 1. Number of children under five years of age per 1000 white women 20-44 years of age.

decreased over 150 years from more than 1100 to less than 450.

In 1790 there were 782 white persons twenty years of age or over per 1,000 children under sixteen years of age; in 1940 there were 2,522 white persons over twenty years of age for each 1,000 persons under sixteen years of age. Thus there were more than three times as many children per adult in 1790 as there were in 1940, the number of children in the family had shrunk to one-third the former number. As the proportion of adults twenty to sixty-four — the productive age — increased in the population because the percentage of children was decreasing, there was less burden in sending children to high school. This fact, coupled with the increased industrial production, made it easier to send children to high school because there were fewer mouths to feed at home.

Urban and rural birth rates. Students of population in the United States have known for some time that cities were not producing enough births to maintain themselves, and that rural-farm areas were the seedbed of America. Over 40 per cent of the children born in rural areas with 2,500 population or less

will work and live in urban areas as adults. The following quotation from two thoughtful students of education and society makes the condition vivid:

Fertility is strikingly high in the Southern Appalachian-Ozark area, in the Old Cotton Belt of the Southeast, in portions of the Southwest, in the Rocky Mountain States, in the northern section of the Great Plains, in the cut-over lands of the Great Lakes states, and in the Northern part of New England. The great area of low fertility extends from Southern New England to Maryland and spreads Westward from New York and Pennsylvania, getting broader as it reaches the Middle West, and ending in Southeastern Nebraska and Western Kansas. The Far Western States of Nevada, California, Oregon, and Washington constitute a second large area in which fertility is low. A considerable portion of Florida and parts of Texas are also characterized by relatively low fertility rates.[11]

This does not mean that there are few children in the far western states; it means only that there are not as many per 1,000 adults as in other parts of the country. The Far West has experienced the heaviest immigration since 1930, with California leading the nation with a percentage increase of over 50 in the 1940's. Oregon and Washington were in close pursuit.

The number of children varies enormously. Thus, per 1,000 women twenty to forty-four years of age, in Utah there are 593 children under five years of age; in South Carolina 586; in New York 289; in New Jersey 294; in rural New Mexico 841. In urban Oregon the number is 276; in urban New York 268. The number in rural areas nationally among farmers was 648; for all cities the number was 310.[12] In 1940 nearly one-third of the states had so few children born that they could not expect to maintain their population. These states were principally north of the Potomac and east of the Dakotas.

The net reproduction rate in 1940 for the farm population was 1.44; in urban areas the ratio was .74. Thus, were it not for the excess births in rural America, the cities would fail to grow, and in a generation would begin to lose population.

Since 1930 the areas which have attracted the largest number of migrants have been: (1) Metropolitan New York including

[11] Edwards and Richey, *op. cit.*, p. 602.
[12] *Ibid.*, p. 603-5.

parts of New Jersey and Connecticut, (2) the Great Lakes areas of Michigan, Illinois, and Ohio, with their great industrial developments, and (3) the Pacific Coast states of California, Oregon, and Washington. The two areas which have lost population heavily are the South and the area between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains. During the 1920's the net migration from rural to urban areas was over 6,000,000, and in the 1930's it was approximately 3,750,000. In 1940 and 1941 over 2,000,000 migrated from the farms to the cities. The trend still continues.

Resources and educational load. Coupled with the educational load, as indicated by the number of children per 1,000 adults, is the ability of the population to support education and other government functions.

If children and income were distributed among the states in equal proportions, it would make little difference from the standpoint of equal educational opportunity that some communities and regions had a high ratio of children to adults. It has been shown that where the number of children is greatest, the plane of living is lowest by whatever standard of living is chosen.

The American people have long prided themselves on their democratic educational system. Yet the evidence clearly indicates that equality of educational opportunity *does not exist.* To equalize the differences to some extent, we have equalization laws in many of the states. There is a movement underway to secure federal aid for education to equalize opportunity still further.

When all the facts are brought into focus, the following broad generalization is warranted. In communities in which the birth rate is low, the educational load light, the plane of living high, and the economic structure the strongest, education is supported most liberally and home and community resources are the richest. In communities where fertility is high, the education load heavy, the plane of living low, and economic resources the most restricted, education receives comparatively meager support, and home and community have the least to contribute to cultural and intellectual growth. Education may be made to serve as a means of equalizing the condition of men but it may also serve as an instrument for the creation

of regional, class, and racial inequalities. If the ladders of educational opportunity rise high at the doors of some but at the doors of others scarcely rise at all, and if a considerable amount of formal schooling is essential for successful occupational adjustment, the educational system will operate to create those very inequalities of class it was designed to prevent. Finally, if each succeeding generation is recruited in disproportionately large numbers from the underprivileged areas of the nation and the underprivileged elements of the population, and if the deficit is not in some measure made good by high educational endeavor, the result may well be the spread of an inferior cultural heritage and the failure of democratic political institutions.[13]

Birth rate since 1940. The trend in birth rates has been sharply up throughout the United States particularly since 1944. The number born in 1947 — 3,977,000 — was the largest ever recorded. By 1946 the net reproduction rate stood at 136, whereas it had been below 100 in the late 30's. The number of children under five years of age rose from 10,542,000 in 1940 to 15,407,000 in 1949. The number from five to nine years of age rose from 10,685,000 in 1940 to an estimated 16,356,000 in 1955.[14] Clearly a population wave is rolling through the schools (as was indicated in Chapter 1). An acute shortage of elementary school teachers has resulted in part from this factor.

Does this mean that the citizens of the United States have adopted a new social policy toward family size? Does it mean there are likely to be continuing rapid growth in school population to the turn of the century? The answers to these questions we do not know. But they are fraught with serious consequences for all persons concerned with public education. A carefully considered judgment is made by Edwards:

> . . . Recent high birth rates do not necessarily mean any material increase in the size of completed families. Apparently they are to be explained primarily by the fact that many couples have been having babies later or earlier than they would normally have had them. During the depression many marriages were postponed and many couples delayed starting their families. The rise in the birth rate

13 *Ibid.,* p. 637.
14 Newton D. Edwards, "Education Implications of Population Change in the United States," *Journal of Teacher Education* I (March, 1950), p. 4.

for 1930 to 1943 represents, in the main, the using up of this backlog of potential babies. The high birth rates since 1944 may be accounted for, in the main, by babies postponed during World War II and by babies borrowed from the future. Babies have been borrowed from the future because many young people, during the postwar period of favorable economic conditions, have married and started families who normally would not have done so until a later date. Naturally, the number of first and second order births among young mothers spiraled sharply upward, and it was these that accounted primarily for the rise in birth rates. But as the marriage rate drops — and it has been dropping now for some time — and postponed and borrowed births are used up, there will surely be a drop in first and second order births. Unless this deficit is made up in some way there will be a resumption of the long-time decline in fertility.[15]

Many persons believe the wave of children sweeping through the schools will be followed by a trough as was the case following World War I. The Bureau of the Census forecast of the enrollment for the years 1948-1960 indicates that the peak enrollment will be reached between 1958 and 1960 when there will be 10 million more enrolled than in 1947, an increase of 40 per cent.[16]

Shifting migration and the schools. Many motives impel persons to migrate. Perhaps the love of adventure appeals to some; to others it is dissatisfaction with conditions as they are, particularly in the economic realm. For others the letters and invitations of friends who have migrated are impelling. Climate and sunshine, favorable weather, and a multitude of other factors contribute. But in the final analysis, the hope of a better life, particularly with respect to improved economic conditions, is the major factor. Thus, because there are twice as many boys who reach eighteen years of age as there are farmers who die or retire, nearly half of our rural population must migrate if they are to find opportunity.

In 1947 there were 70 million persons living in homes different from those they had occupied in 1940. In the same period,

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[15] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

[16] Bureau of the Census, "Forecasts of Population and School Enrollment in the United States 1948-1960," *Current Population Reports-Population Estimate Series*, No. 18, February 14, 1949, p 25.

25 million had moved to another county, five million had moved to a contiguous state and seven and one-half million had moved to a non-contiguous state. If a migrant is defined as one who has moved at least once and at least as far as another county, approximately 20 per cent of the population were migrants, and in the West 40 per cent. Approximately 10 per cent of the population were living in a state other than the one in which they were born.[17]

During this period 7,500,000 persons left the farms to enter war production; the net loss was 3,200,000 or nearly one-eighth of the farm population in 1940. Until 1917 the Negroes were not as migratory as the whites. By 1930 about one-fourth were living in a state other than the one in which they were born. By 1947 they had become as migratory as the white people.

When one-fifth of the school children are migrants we cannot be unconcerned about the educational opportunities, or lack of them, which are provided anywhere in the United States. Since they have the most to gain, migrants are most frequently those people with the poorest prospects at home and the meagerest education. Whatever deficiencies the migrant has in civic competence, however poor his preparation for making a living, he brings the deficiencies with him when he migrates.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. Prepare a statement of democracy which you are willing to defend to your classmates.
2. If we accept the belief that each person has the right to develop his talents to their limits, what are the implications for the public high school?
3. Defend or attack the statement — A state that wishes to perpetuate itself must inculcate young people with its beliefs and tradition.
4. Of the following contributions of education, which do you consider most important: (1) to provide an enlightened citizenry, (2) to create national unity, (3) to Americanize the foreign born, (4) to provide social cohesion.

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[17] Bureau of the Census, "Internal Migration in the United States; April 1940 to April 1947," *Current Population Reports-Population Characteristics Series*, No. 14, April 13, 1948, p. 20.

5. Explain how our natural resources have aided the development of American democracy.

6. Discuss the importance of our productive economy on the development of the American public secondary school.

7. Enumerate the most important social factors responsible for the growth of the free public high school.

8. What are the implications of the differentials in urban and rural birthrates for secondary school development?

9. What concern need be felt about the unequal educational load in various parts of the United States?

10. What education problems are likely to be found in areas where there are many new citizens due to migration?

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5

Making the High School Effectively Free

Paul B. Jacobson

Although the number of children attending secondary schools has grown tremendously, a considerable proportion of those who should be in school still do not attend. According to the 1940 census, approximately 8 per cent of the fourteen-year-old boys and girls were not in school; 12 per cent of the fifteen-year-olds; 24 per cent of the sixteen-year-olds; and 39 per cent of the seventeen-year-olds. Thus, 21 per cent of the boys and girls fourteen to seventeen years of age were not in school, and very few of this group had completed the high school program. Furthermore, 71 per cent of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old boys and girls were not enrolled in any educational institution.

THE MAJOR PROBLEM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

It is a serious threat to democracy that one out of five fourteen- to seventeen-year-old youngsters is not in school. If we are to retain our political liberty, if we are to maintain our integrity and independence as a leading world power, we must have an intelligent and discerning population. We must know how to find the answers to our problems more intelligently than by merely listening to a persuasive voice over the

radio. Nor will it do for the citizens of a democracy to follow demagogues who promise everything to everyone. It is not an accident that dictators rise to power in those areas where schools are fewest.

Why students drop out of school. There are, of course, many reasons why so many fourteen- to seventeen-year-old boys and girls are not in school. A few brilliant students have graduated from the secondary schools and have gone on to college. Fewer still, so stupid they could not profit from school attendance, have been placed in protective custody in homes for the feeble-minded. Another small segment have become delinquents, if not downright incorrigibles, as a result of unspeakable home conditions and have been incarcerated in training schools or their equivalent. An even smaller number, consisting almost entirely of girls, have forsaken the schoolroom for marriage.

The education of children's parents and their desire for the children to continue in high school are important factors in school attendance. The son of a high school teacher, even in the poorest playing states, is likely to graduate from high school and perhaps continue into college, even though the family must sacrifice insurance and savings and deny itself many comforts ordinarily considered essentials. Although there are too few research data to indicate just how important family educational status is in causing boys and girls to persist in high school, what evidence there is, and common observation as well, indicates that family educational level ordinarily has a powerful influence upon the amount of formal schooling completed. This does not gainsay the thesis, however, that the basic reason why young people are not in school is that they cannot afford to attend.

A pioneer study of high school attendance. About 30 years ago George S. Counts made the pioneer study to determine whether children from all economic groups continued in school with equal frequency. He made studies involving 17,265 students in four cities: Seattle, Washington; Bridgeport, Connecticut; St. Louis, Missouri; and Mt. Vernon, New York.[1] By

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[1] George S. Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1922), p. 162.

grouping students in the factor of the father's occupation, and analyzing the data on several bases, he concluded the most important factor in holding power was the socio-economic status as indicated by the father's occupation.

One of the most startling facts disclosed was that a child whose father was in the professional group had more than 60 times as much chance of graduating from high school than the child whose father was an unskilled laborer. Counts concluded that in the high schools in the four cities he studied (a) such occupational groups as the professional, proprietary, and managerial were represented in decidedly greater proportions than groups like personal service, public service, and unskilled labor, and (b) the American secondary school was a highly selective institution and the students were a highly select group.

Findings from the national survey. A decade later the study was repeated, using the same questionnaires in the same cities, as part of the National Survey of Secondary Education.[2] The data were treated in the same way that Counts had done for Seattle and Bridgeport. For every occupational group in Seattle there was greater proportionate representation in 1930 than in 1920, indicating greater popularity of the high school on the part of all occupational groups. However, the increases were greater for the higher than for the lower economic groups. The average increase per 1,000 was 193 for the professional, managerial, and proprietary groups; 118 for the clerical and commercial groups; 112 for those in trade, 153 for those in public service and transportation; and 86 for common labor and personal service.

If the five "white collar" groups (professional, managerial, commercial, clerical, and proprietary) are compared with the "overall group," it is noted that both groups had gained numerically. However, in Seattle the white collar group had gained proportionally more than the "overall group."

The data from Bridgeport indicated that high school attend-

[2] National Survey of Secondary Education, *The Secondary School of Population*, Monograph No. 4, Bulletin 1932, No. 17 (Washington, D.C.: Dept. of Interior, Office of Education, 1933).

ance was more popular for all groups except the professional than had been true a decade earlier. And as was true in Seattle, the professional, proprietary, and managerial groups had gained more proportionately than the other groups.

The Regents inquiry into the cost and character of public education in New York State in 1937 arrived at conclusions consistent with those mentioned above. Nearly two-thirds of those who entered high school at that time dropped out before graduation. The report makes clear that many of those who had most to gain from continued school attendance and most desperately needed the social and cultural values which the school provides dropped out earliest and in appalling numbers. The following quotation is revealing:

> Pronounced economic and social selection operates among high school pupils in New York State as it does in most other states. More than half the boys and girls who drop out of school without graduating, as contrasted with fewer than a fifth of the graduates, are reported to belong to poor or indigent families. Boys and girls whose fathers are engaged in unskilled labor graduate much less often than do those who come from professional families. More frequently than the graduates, the nongraduates have been brought up in homes in which some other language than English is spoken. Handicaps arising from all these sources — poverty, parental occupations which provide small opportunity for parents to assist in their children's education, home backgrounds colored by foreign outlooks — are clearly reflected in reports from the schools on unusual features in their pupils' home environments. When unusual features are mentioned, those noted for graduates are predominantly advantages. Those mentioned with reference to nongraduates tend to be disadvantages, the limited cultural opportunities provided by the homes being especially emphasized.[3]

Maryland youth study. The American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education made a study of youth problems in Maryland in 1938.[4]

In the opinion of the investigators, the Maryland study was

[3] Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, Report of the Regents' Inquiry (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938), p. 78. (Used by permission.)
[4] Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, D C.: American Council on Education, 1938), p. 273.

a substantially accurate sample for the United States as of that date. More than 34 per cent of the sixteen-year age group and over 50 per cent of the seventeen-year age group were not in school. More than 75 per cent of the eighteen-year-old boys and girls had concluded their formal education. Out of every 100 young people in Maryland, 40 had not finished the eighth grade, 25 entered high school but did not graduate, 25 graduated from high school, and 10 received some education beyond high school. When asked why they left school, 56 per cent said because of economic need or because they wanted to earn money; 24 per cent, because they felt they had completed their education upon graduation; and 8 per cent, for reasons such as marriage, poor health, and the like.

From families in the professional-technical group, 12 out of 13 attended school beyond the eighth grade; from the farm-laborer group, only 1 out of 8. Bell concludes that the father's occupation is the most dependable single index of the educational level which a boy or girl is likely to achieve.

Family income and attendance at high school. Two additional research findings buttress the argument. Karpinos [5] made a study of the school attendance in 1935-36 of 681,138 white city youth who were at that time sixteen or seventeen years old. He found that 65 per cent from families with incomes of $1,000 or less were attending school. In contrast, over 88 per cent from the families having incomes above $3,000 were attending school.

The United States Census Bureau has supplied additional evidence through its analysis of the relationship between school attendance and the 1940 rental value of family dwellings.[6] For seventeen-year-old Negro boys, only 27 per cent had completed one year of high school when the rental value was $10 or less per month as contrasted with 87 per cent when the rental was

[5] Bernard D. Karpinos, "School Attendance as Affected by Prevailing Socio-Economic Factors," *School Review*, 51:39-49 (January, 1943).

[6] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Educational Attainment of Children by Rental Value of Family Dwellings* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1945), 50 pp. See also Grace S. Wright, "High School Attendance and Family Income" *School Life*, 29:7-10 (June, 1947).

over $50 per month. Fewer than 60 per cent of seventeen-year-old white girls had completed one year of high school when the rental was $10 or less per month, whereas over 95 per cent had a similar achievement when the monthly rental was $50 or more.

Thus we come again to the original thesis. More than one-fifth of America's teen age boys and girls are not in high school and one of the most significant reasons for their nonattendance, although not the only one, is that they cannot afford it.

Cost of Attending High School

Since so many young people come from the low income families drop out of school, several serious students of secondary education have made studies to determine the "cash costs" of attending high school. A second variant is to study the "hidden tuition" costs in attending high school. There are several cost expenditures required if a boy or girl is to attend high school with enjoyment and profit. Almost never is admission to athletic contests free. Students like to eat with their friends in the school cafeteria or dawdle with their peers over a coke at the corner drugstore. For those who play in the band, there is ordinarily the cost of an instrument. But these are merely the beginning. Under "hidden tuition" costs are such expenses as book purchases or rental fees, school insignia or class rings, gymnasium uniforms, and the cost of materials used in the school shop.

Cash costs. A research study involving 19,459 high school students in 134 high schools in 29 states gives a partial answer to the question: What does it cost to attend high school?[1] These schools were scattered from Vermont to California and from Minnesota to Alabama. They ranged in size from the 31 enrolled in Panama, Illinois, to 3,690 in the Proviso Township High School in the same state. They were representative of the various types of high schools and were drawn from both

[1] Paul B. Jacobson, "The Cost of Attending High School," *Bulletin 119.* (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, January, 1944), pp. 3-28.

urban and rural communities. The sample cost figures were taken for a short period during the year, then multiplied by the factor necessary to equate all costs to a 36-week year. Since the sample, excepting three or four instances, did not include either the beginning of the school year or graduation time, the costs can be accepted as conservative because, as every parent of an adolescent knows, the beginning of the school year and graduation time are hardest on the family pocketbook.

A number of interesting facts were determined. For example, the average cost to each pupil for attending school in communities of less than 1,000 was $58.50. This expenditure rose steadily with the size of the community to $103.50 in cities over 100,000 in population. It also rose steadily from $63 in Grade IX to $109 in Grade XII — perhaps because adolescent tastes grow with age, perhaps because those who cannot "pay the freight" tend to drop out more readily. The amounts spent by individuals ranged from nothing to more than $900. The average cost for 19,459 boys and girls was $81.96.

For what was the money spent? An analysis was made of 464 cards, taking each fortieth pupil card in the entire lot. For these 464 cases there was a gradual increase in expenses from $74.12 in Grade IX to $119.54 in Grade XII, with an average of $89.60 — slightly higher than the averages for the entire group. There was some increase in expenditure from grade to grade for most of the items, particularly for the large ones: clothing, lunches, carfare or transportation, and miscellaneous. The items reported in order of magnitude were: clothing, $41.46 (46 per cent); lunches, $16.18 (18 per cent); miscellaneous, $9.98; transportation or carfare, $7.72; school supplies, $4.30; admissions, $2.07; uniforms and equipment, $2.05; school dues, $1.56; school laboratory fees or fines, $1.54; tag days, $1.17; school trips or excursions, $0.88; and school publications, $0.69.

The largest single item of expense was clothing, which increased from $33.56 in Grade IX to $52.46 in Grade XII, and was greater for all girls at all grade levels than for boys. For the whole group it accounted for nearly half the expenditures — over $40 per pupil. For a boy, this amount of money might

purchase one pair of shoes, a hat, two pairs of trousers and a sweater, four pairs of socks, two suits of underwear, a few handkerchiefs, and two neckties. It might provide a mackinaw or leather jacket every other year. For the girls, the average expenditure for clothes was $15 more than for boys, but those who have teen-age sisters know how little $56 would buy today. "But," one may say, "clothing must be worn whether or not the youngster attends school." True, but not the same kind of clothes. The dungarees which high school girls wear on a Halloween party are not appropriate in a public high school.

The miscellaneous item was $9.98 per year or 30 cents per week, for cokes, malted milks, candy, cigarettes, and show tickets. Perhaps this figure isn't completely accurate, it is what students reported on specially prepared forms which give every evidence of careful recording. Thirty cents per week "free money" doesn't smack of riotous living!

Assuming that these figures are approximately accurate, the annual cost of attending the "free American high school" is about $90 per year, or even $120 for a senior. Of course, most families represented by the readers of this chapter can afford expenditures of this magnitude, but what of the sharecropper or the fisherman or the unskilled worker on the section gang? For families with annual incomes of $2,000 or less (when the study was made, two of every three families were in that group) the expenditure of $90 per year to keep a child in high school is one which can be made only after serious consideration, particularly if there are two or more children. Furthermore, it must be remembered that these school cost figures were collected in 1943 and would probably be nearer $150 per year in the 1950's. The evidence we have on family incomes indicates that in 1948 about three-fifths of the persons in the United States lived in families which had incomes of $3,000 or more. This is the highest standard any nation has ever achieved. But at the lower end of the income structure were four million families, one-ninth of the total number, in which the annual income was less than $1,000. Approximately one-fourth of the families had incomes of less than $2,000 and nearly half had

less than $3,000.[8] It is generally assumed that about 80 per cent of the children are found in the income group below $3,000. For many of these families the "cash costs" of attending high school, and the hidden tuition costs described below, make it very difficult indeed for many boys and girls to continue in school. Perhaps it is only fair to say again that the "cash cost" is not the only factor involved in continued school attendance.

Hidden tuition costs. A series of basic studies at the University of Illinois shed further light on the question of costs. Information was secured from 79 schools to determine what was the "hidden cost" of taking each subject offered in the school. In a few schools, of course, there was no cost since the board of education furnished all books and supplies. In others students were required to rent books from the school, or spend even more money by purchasing them outright.

TABLE 1

Hidden Tuition Costs in 79 High Schools [a]

	Grade 9				Grade 12			
	Free Books	Rental	Medium Purchase	No Text	Free Books	Rental	Medium Purchase	No Text
English	$ .40	$1.50	$3.65		$ .65	$1.25	$3.75	
Mathematics	.20	.85	1.90		.05	.85	2.50	
Science	.10	.75	2.50		.50	2.25	3.75	
Social Studies	.15	1.15	3.05		.60	1.00	3.15	
Commercial Subjects	.60	1.25	3.60		1.20	1.90	5.55	
Foreign Languages		.70	2.45		.00	.85	2.60	
Music		.00				.00		
Boys Practical Arts	1.75	2.00	4.50	$1.70	3.75	3.65	3.75	$2.20
Girls Practical Arts	6.10	5.25	7.10	7.50	7.80	2.85	3.20	8.50
Vocational Subjects	1.35	1.25	3.45		5.10	1.25	4.75	
Boys Physical Educ.		7.10				7.15		
Girls Physical Educ.		6.60				6.15		

The study indicates the minimum, maximum, and median costs at each grade level. Table I indicates the medium cost in grade IX and in grade XII under three conditions: free books,

[8] Robert L. Heilbroner, "Who are the American Poor?" *Harper's Magazine*, 199 (June, 1950), p. 28.

[a] Adapted from H. C. Hand, Principal Findings of the 1947-48 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Curricular Series A. No. 51, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 2. Springfield, Illinois, 1949, pp. 28-63.

rental of books from the school district, and purchase of books by the student, either at the school store or from commercial establishments in the community. In addition the cost for practical arts courses where no textbooks are used were included.

Quite obviously, furnishing books and supplies reduces the cost of attending school and would tend to make it more readily possible for boys and girls from low income groups to stay in school. Even where textbooks are free, there are likely to be minor expenses for a supplementary workbook, pencils, special paper, and the like. When the student must purchase the books, very substantial sums are involved. If we choose the more expensive schools where books are purchased by the individual student, it is quite possible to find total costs of more than $50.00 plus the other costs which are listed in Table II.

There are, of course, many other costs incidental to high

TABLE II
Median Costs of Certain Activities in Junior and Senior High Schools [10]

	Junior High	Senior High
Class Rings	$2.25	$13.00
Baseball	.00	12.25
Basketball	.75	2.80
Football	.70	2.10
Golf	—	50.00
Swimming	—	1.50
Tennis	—	15.00
Track	.75	2.70
Wrestling or Boxing	—	1.00
Girls Intramural	.75	2.05
Dramatics	.25	.50
Forum	—	.40
Band	2.00	3.50
Chorus	—	.35
Orchestra	6.00	2.25
Annual	1.40	2.25
Newspaper or Magazine	.50	1.00

[10] Adapted from H. C. Hand, *Principal Findings of the 1947-48 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program*, Curricular Series A- No. 51, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 2. Springfield, Illinois, 1949, pp. 28-63.

school attendance. For example, the median cost of home athletic contests was $5.05; it is not exceptional to find the cost as high as $20.00 per individual. The median cost of graduation was found to be $14.35 for pictures, announcements, caps and gowns, and other generally observed items. Individual expenditures may well be over $100.00 where lavish dress is allowed. The cost of belonging to clubs varied from nothing to $71.00 to belong to the pep club in a school where the cheer leaders were required to purchase expensive uniforms. Class dues were general, but were usually not more than $1.00. Certainly a boy whose father has a meager income cannot participate in golf, a game in which the individual must generally furnish his own clubs and playing equipment at a median expense of $50.00.

The expense increases as the students progress from the junior high school to the senior high school. Not every student will have every expenditure, nor should he. But the total cost is formidable for boys and girls from low income groups. It is undoubtedly one of the main reasons why children from low income groups drop out of school first.

Possible solutions. Several possible solutions to the problem merit consideration. Higher incomes would enable many families to keep their children in school. But higher family incomes are goals for the future and can be achieved only when they have been earned or produced. This will not care for the years immediately ahead.

It is possible, as a second alternative, that schools could provide more free services. The furnishing of supplies and textbooks grows more common each year. Transportation also is being supplied more and more extensively, though it still is by no means universal. Probably school lunches could be furnished. As a matter of fact, the subsidies available from the United States Department of Agriculture constitute a step in that direction. School activities could be provided without an *admission charge. But any or all of these services would in-crease school budgets, and many communities already have levied the statutory limit without providing them.*

Scholarship aid for the most able students, say two per cent of the population, would enable some potential leaders to stay in school, but not all needy children are potential leaders. Furthermore, nearly one-half the "cost" of attending school is for clothing and even if scholarship aid were available, it goes against the grain for healthy young people to accept clothing from sources outside the family. Many boys and girls would rather go without the things they want and need than accept charity.

Few people object, however, to young people earning the money necessary to stay in school. Here, in normal times, seems to be the solution to the problem. It is a community responsibility to see that jobs are available so that needy and worthy young people can earn the money to continue their education. Likewise it is the school's job to coordinate with his academic program the work which enables the young person to stay in school.

During the war, millions of boys and girls were eagerly sought in the service occupations to replace their older brothers and sisters who had gone into war production or into the armed services. When the war ended, many communities forgot that young people needed the learning experience of working, and that large numbers of them needed part-time jobs to enable them to stay in school. This means that school teachers and administrators have an educational task to sensitize their communities to the needs of a work-experience program.

During periods when jobs are scarce, the problem is different. Some years ago the NYA enabled many young people to earn part of the money necessary to stay in school. But sufficient funds never were available. The average sum earned by high schools students on NYA projects was about $4.50 per month — helpful, but not enough to pay the cost of school attendance. Moreover, although the NYA was helpful, it should have been administered *as part of* the school system instead of *apart from* it. It is generally agreed that the funds for the in-school program should have been allotted to the U.S. Office of Education to be given in turn to the state departments of education for distribution.

CLASS STRUCTURE AND THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

It has long been an American creed that the United States is without class structure or restriction on social mobility. It has been a fond belief of many citizens that the school is a completely democratic, classless society. Certainly the school is the most democratic institution in American life. Economic circumstances of families are overlooked in schools more generally than anywhere else; boys from "across the tracks" become heroes and athletic captains. Often their prowess enables them to attend a university and to become "upward mobile" in society. It is part of the American dream that anyone can rise in our society, if he wishes to do so. This belief is not without foundation, for a railsplitter and a haberdashery salesman have become presidents of the United States. Scarcely any citizen can be found who does not know someone who has achieved financial or social success, in spite of humble beginnings, because of intelligence, beauty, talent, or perseverance. The possibility of "success-upward" mobility we shall give up only under the severest duress.

Class structure in the community. As any community increases beyond a dozen members, choices must be made regarding the association of individuals with each other. Common ideals or beliefs, a similar background, or a desire to live in the same way tend to dictate these choices. Social anthropologists who have studied the behavior of citizens in their relationships with one another indicate there is a class structure and that it tends to become stratified. Studies have been made in New England, in the Middle West, and the deep South describing the social class structure in three different communities.[11] There is a growing literature in both professional

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[11] W. Lloyd Warner and Paul Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community.* (New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1941.)

The committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago has sponsored a series of books on this topic. Among them are: A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmstown's Youth.* (New York. Wiley, 1949.) W. L. Warner, R. H. Havighurst, and M. B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated?* (New York. Harper and Brothers, 1944), p. 186.

Allison Davis, Burleigh Gardner, and Mary Gardner, *Deep South — A Social Anthropological Study of Caste and Class.* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941.)

and fictional books, dealing with this topic. Sinclair Lewis wrote about the social class in Zenith in *Babbitt*. In addition, popular magazines such as *Life* have devoted space to the class structure in American society indicating differences in eating habits, social interests, recreation, and the homes in which individuals live.

A social class system is usually defined as two or more orders of people who are ranked by those who know them in socially inferior or superior positions. They tend to be grouped together as "The 400," "The Country Club Set," "The Little People," "Shantytown," or by some other descriptive term. Although there are exceptions, frequently noted in the press, members of a social class tend to marry one another and associate in school groups, fraternities, churches, and clubs.

When members of a community are asked to rate each other, there is relative agreement, as the following quotation indicates:

Thus, for instance, raters Jones and Smith may both agree that lawyer Brown is certainly among the cream of Elmville society, while carpenter Williams is a shiftless, "no account" pauper. Similarly, both might agree that banker Johnson is on a close plane with lawyer Brown, while plumber Stone is not far removed from carpenter Williams in social worth. Furthermore, both might agree that schoolteacher Evans, while not among the cream of Elmville society, is certainly a "better citizen" that either Williams or Stone. Given enough of such information and agreement, one has the basis for outlining the class structure of Elmville.[12]

In the Yankee City study there were found to be six classes distributed as follows:

TABLE III

Class Structure in Yankee City

1. Upper Upper	1.5
Lower Upper	1.5
2. Upper Middle	10.0
Lower Middle	28.0
3. Upper Lower	33.0
Lower Lower	25.0

(The total is less than 100 per cent because fractional percentages have been disregarded except in the upper class.)

12 Lawrence A. Cremin, "Some Are More Equal Than Others," *Progressive Education.* 27 (February, 1950): 98.

The other studies have found variations in their percentages; sometimes (as in Prairie City) there were only five classes with the two upper classes merged into one. Class structure is most clearly discernible in the East and in the South. There are identifiable class structures in the Midwest. The least stratified society is in the rapidly growing West, but here, too, there is evidence of social class structure.

Characteristics of upper-class society. Upper-class society is usually characterized by the possession of money. However, some persons who do not have money but who do come from an "old family," particularly in the South, are still considered upper upper class. Those in the lower upper class always have money; frequently they are "new shoe people" who, in a generation or two, if they persist and translate their money into symbols of living, will ultimately enter the upper upper class. Money must be used for certain rituals of living such as philanthropic activities, service in the home, and a considerable interest in the genealogy of the family and its friends. Ordinarily upper-class citizens are likely to be very conservative politically. They live in the best part of town. There are likely to be many unmarried women above the ordinary marriage age because the men have left home and acquired wives elsewhere. There are few "suitable" men for those who remain. They are likely to use their own libraries rather than frequent the public library. Very often the children, particularly in the East, attend private schools.

Middle-class society. The upper middle-class citizens are likely to be the "salt of the earth," civic-minded persons in positions of leadership: professional men, successful businessmen, managers of large enterprises. They are the driving force behind community chests and service clubs, they support the public schools and the public libraries, and they tend to follow the political philosophies of the upper class. In the lower middle class are the clerks, artisans, and small retailers. They live in respectable, "second best" areas. Often the upper middle have more formal education than *any* of the other groups. However, they tend to be associated with the upper class and to emphasize the gap between themselves and the classes

below. Often upper middle-class citizens have very substantial incomes but are not interested in social position.

The table manners of the lower middle differ markedly from those of the upper-class citizens and are more nearly like those of the upper lower class, the respectable poor. Most of the lower middle class are native citizens, although the more successful of the immigrant groups are included. The school has dealt very successfully with students who came from homes where learning is important; many of them are destined for college. Sexual irregularity is more severely chastized in the middle group than in either upper or lower. Social drinking is not practiced extensively in lower middle-class families. The lower middle is the upper limit of the "common man." They are aware of their many ties with the group below them, but they attain some superiority through clubs, automobile ownership, and clothing.

Lower-class groups. Almost one-third of the citizens are in the upper lower class — the respectable poor. Many are semi-skilled laborers who want for their children better opportunities than they have enjoyed. They are likely to be situated economically so that food is the chief item of expense. They disapprove of the lax standards of the lower lower class and are likely to be very intolerant of the careless ways of the lower group. Often women in this group work to supplement the family income. Ordinarily they work hard, pay their bills, and raise a family, but they do not "get ahead."

In lower lower society — about one-fourth of the total — we have essentially an undemocratic group. They are recognized as below the "common man." They may be called "oakies," "hillbillies," "poor whites," "river rats," "riverbrookers," or by some other term implying low social status. Children are taught to fight to protect themselves — and to strike first. Though theft is not condoned verbally, in the slum areas it is overlooked or punished very lightly. Children stay up later, spend more time on the streets, and attend more movies than middle-class children. Lower-class citizens take little heed of the future; if they have abundance it is eaten or spent promptly. Because they had more money during the war than ever before,

they squandered much of it on riotous living and expensive clothes. Mixed drinking is common, often resulting in fights — with fists or knives — and arrests. Profanity is commonplace and sexual irregularity is condoned. There may even be pitched family battles. All of them are poor; most of them have no particular desire to get ahead.

Many teachers, especially respectable middle-class women, do not understand and frequently alienate lower-class students who fight, use profanity, or speak casually about sexual matters. It is not necessary to approve, but it is imperative to understand the one-fourth of the school population who must be socialized if we are to have social cohesion in the United States. It is desirable that this group must be brought to accept middle-class values. The fate of the nation industrially and politically and its security in case of war rest primarily on the school being able to help large numbers of slum and farm-tenant groups learn how to accept the skills and values of our society.

Low educational achievement at home teaches lower lower-class students to scorn achievement. In many cases, high marks are a matter of shame; consequently retardation is prevalent. *Elimination results often before the legal age,* as many of these people are migrants and cannot easily be followed up. And teachers who do not understand boys and girls from this strata of society also drive them out of school by increasing their unhappiness. This completes the vicious circle: low achievement and low income at home, poor success educationally and socially at school; unhappiness increased by teachers with lack of understanding; early school elimination, a poor job, and the same cycle in the next generation.

An understanding of the class structure helps to explain why some children value education while others do not, why some boys and girls get along well with teachers while others are always in trouble, why some children are not accepted in this group, why the school means different things to children from different groups, and why they behave differently toward the school environment.

How to rise in the class structure. The place of a person in

society depends on the group with which he has intimate social relationships, the group which is readily admitted to his home.

One can rise only by learning the manners and social skills of a higher group and by being accepted in that group. In the process, natural ability, talent, and personal attractiveness are helpful. Education, too, is an important factor. If the school understands these young people, it can be used as an escalator by teaching habits without moralizing. A few teachers who have risen from lower-class status would be helpful in reorienting these children.

The school can assist in socializing lower-class students through an expansion of its extracurricular program so that all students can find something of interest to them without a high price tag. Everyone must have an activity in which he can be successful, and in which he can learn common skills with children from all groups. We have not yet exploited the possibilities of the school as an instrument of social mobility. Such a development is one of the challenges to young people entering teaching.

The caste system and the school. For the Negro particularly, and to a lesser degree for other non-whites, there is a caste system in which intermarriage outside the caste is not readily acceptable and in some instances is forbidden by law. There is within Negro society a class structure as well. The very least we can do educationally is to provide facilities and programs for non-whites that are as good as those for whites. This problem, too, will need to be solved in large part by the young people who are now entering teaching.

Character education in the schools. Character education has long been recognized as an objective of the schools. At times direct instruction has been given. At other times it was assumed young people would absorb it through the experiences in the classroom and on the playing field. In the earliest schools character education was thought to consist of religious teaching and moralizing. In some parochial schools such a concept still exists. One of the greatest difficulties with teaching character

is measuring it. A recent study entitled *Adolescent Character and Personality*[13] deals with a careful study of character in "Prairie City," a community studied by the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago. In the study, character consists of five traits: honesty, loyalty, responsibility, moral courage, and friendliness. The individual's reputation among adults and age-mates was defined as character.

It was found that in general the young people had accepted the character traits for which the schools stand. It showed that those in the upper social classes tended to be rated above average on all five traits; those in the lower classes, who did not have middle-class values at home and who least liked school, tended to be rated below average. There was also a close relationship between success in school and character rating. The study concluded, too, that ". . . church membership in itself is not an independently powerful influence in the development of character but church membership is often associated with other factors or constellations of factors that tend to produce good or bad character reputations."[14]

Moral beliefs are strongly underlined by the family, community customs, and the influence of contemporaries. The moral values of lower-class boys and girls are not as high, or at least are not reputed to be so high, as those of the upper classes in the community. We have here another indication of the need to understand those in the socially lower-class quarter of the school population and to make the school environment one in which they can find happiness and success. This will involve recreational facilities, community action, opportunity for success, and curricular changes. All too frequently we have failed to talk about — to intellectualize — moral values. Quite probably fiction and biography can be used to build values as well as loyalty to the football team. While we can say, from the evidence we have, that the high school does develop character in boys and girls, the extension and refinement of this important task offers opportunity for the future.

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[13] R. J. Havighurst and Hilda Taba, *Adolescent Character and Personality.* (New York: Wiley, 1949.)

[14] *Ibid.,* p. 68.

Study and Discussion

1. Discuss the factors that cause teen-age boys and girls to drop out of school.

2. Attack or defend the point of view that the "hidden tuition costs" are the major reason why children from the lower economic groups drop out of school.

3. Explain how a student-work plan may assist able and willing young people to continue in school.

4. What explanation can you make for the dropping out of school of over a million teen-age boys and girls from 1942-1945?

5. Be prepared to discuss class structure as it has been found to exist in various parts of the United States.

6. What are the implications of class structure for beginning high school teachers?

7. How would you distinguish between "old family," the "common man," "river rats," and "new rich"?

8. Review for the class one of the studies referred to in the foot-notes or the bibliography of this chapter.

9. Make a study of the typical school costs of a high school student in this vicinity.

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6

Additional Problems Confronting
Secondary Education

Paul B. Jacobson

In Chapter 4 we indicated that a large percentage of the boys and girls who are born in rural America will live and work in cities. Some rural communities sorely need state and federal aid to support more adequate programs. But money alone is not enough. The rural high school program must be thoroughly reorganized and revitalized to provide for (1) those who will move to urban areas and (2) for those who will remain in the rural farm and rural nonfarm areas. A revitalized program in some communities has strengthened the economic structure and improved the quality of rural living.[1]

Equally important is the furnishing of marketable skills and a knowledge of economic opportunities in urban areas. Those who migrate need to know how to find a job and how to adjust to urban living; ideally they should receive vocational guidance including field trips to urban areas. In addition, all need personal skills for leisure time, knowledge about civic responsi-

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[1] For illustrations see Harold Spears, *The High School For Today* (New York: American Book Company, 1950), pp. 125-136. It describes a number of programs where rural high schools have improved the level of living in the community. Additional references can be found in *Schools and Manpower Today and Tomorrow*, American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-first Yearbook (Washington, D.C.; The Association, 1943), pp. 44-48 and 49-51.

bilities, and practice in democratic relationships in the school, both in the classroom and in the activities program.

THE FARMVILLE SCHOOL

The program described by the Educational Policies Commission in *Education for All American Youth* is such a program. In the Farmville Community, which represents rural America, the Commission suggests a consolidated school that will be large enough (600 in grades 7-14 or about 120 in each grade 7-12) to offer a varied program, yet keep the cost within reasonable bounds with classes of approximately 25 students.

Farmville is a mythical community which has been endowed by its creators with what is thought to be an ideal program. There is nothing in Farmville or American City which does not now exist in some public high school. There is no one school which combines all of the features ascribed to these two mythical communities. A few small communities have made significant contributions to building a program which will care for the 40 per cent of young people who are destined to live in urban areas. Providing such programs in other rural communities offers a challenge and an opportunity to hundreds of young people who enter secondary school teaching. In a very large number of communities, school consolidation is imperative to provide a student body and a tax base large enough to support a varied program.

To meet the common needs of all is a program of Common Learnings required of all (see Chapter 8 on curriculum for illustrations). In addition to meeting the common needs, provisions are made to care for the individual interests and desires of those who will go into farming, those who will move away, and those who will attend either a four-year college or a Community Institute elsewhere to prepare for a semi-professional occupation.

One of the unusual features of the Farmville School is the recognition that over 40 per cent of its young people will live elsewhere and earn a living at occupations different from those in the community. The *World at Work*, a vital course in occu-

pations, is required of all pupils at the tenth-grade level. In addition to a careful study of occupations, which characterizes many high schools, there are four "field trips" a year to American City to see occupations that might be of interest to the individual students. In addition, there are discussions, conferences with practitioners in the occupation, and careful guidance by the counsellors who teach the course in occupations.

Vocational education for those who plan to remain falls largely into four fields: agriculture, homemaking, business, and mechanics. Coordinated with instruction is a series of carefully planned work experiences in the school shop, in the school lunchroom, on the school farm, and in the community.

For those who will move to cities to earn their living there are the field trips to American city. There is also the work experience program in the school and in the community, and the basic vocational courses in the school. After completing Grade XII, they are guided into work or into one of the series of Community Institutes in the state. In a very large number of the high schools of the United States the program envisaged in *Education For All American Youth* has not yet been realized. This situation is one of the challenges confronting the young people now entering teaching.

EXTENDING AND EXPANDING THE PROGRAM

Although the cost of attending school is the principal reason why over 20 per cent of the teen-age boys and girls are not enrolled, school administrators must be actively concerned with a number of important collateral reasons for nonattendance. Inaccessible or unsatisfactory secondary schools, lack of vocational courses, a traditional curriculum, teachers who do not understand young people, and lack of guidance facilities contribute heavily to the unfortunate exodus from high school classrooms.

Regional or area schools. In sparsely settled regions, students of high school age frequently must live away from home if they are to attend school; parents quite naturally are reluctant to have them do so, particularly when adequate living quarters are

not available. Dormitories operated inexpensively, where produce from the farms may be accepted as payment for subsistence and where all share the work of housekeeping, will tend to reduce this inequality. Furthermore, area schools in sparsely settled regions make possible schools of sufficient size to offer well-rounded curriculums at reasonable cost. There are more than 25,000 high schools in the United States, of which only 15 per cent enroll 500 students or more. If one selects 300 (plus 150 in Grades VII and VIII) as the minimum size of an economical unit in which a well-rounded program at reasonable cost can be offered, 25 per cent of the present high schools qualify.

Small schools make heroic efforts to provide minimum programs by alternating the curriculum offerings on a two-year cycle, by having teachers provide instruction in six or seven areas (in some of which they are necessarily unsatisfactorily trained), and by the use of correspondence courses. But by and large the programs of small schools are narrow, academic, and devoid of opportunities to explore industrial arts, commercial work, or home economics. Indeed, even agriculture is often missing from the program of rural high schools in order to provide a college preparatory program. This situation fails miserably to meet the needs of the two-thirds of the boys and girls who will either drop out before graduation time or be unable to go to college.

Obviously not all small schools can be abolished; but we can see that no more are begun. We have the obligation to work toward the community school advocated and described by the Educational Policies Commission.

Although the small high school is the major problem relating to the size of schools, it is possible for a high school to be too large. The evidence indicates that high schools of 2,000 enrollment or more can be economically administered, that guidance of individuals can be properly cared for, and that curriculum offerings can be more varied and specialized without becoming unduly expensive. However, many students are not provided with extracurricular opportunities, particularly at the varsity

or interscholastic level, although these opportunities theoretically can be provided in a school of enormous enrollment. In the opinion of many persons, schools should rarely exceed 2,000 in enrollment except in metropolitan areas where land values preclude any alternative.

Vocational training is needed. One-fourth of the young people who drop out of school do so because the curriculum is too academic. They want to learn to do something that will directly assist them in earning a living. Schools must never lose sight of the fact that almost everyone in the United States works for his livelihood. This by no means implies that high schools should provide specific instruction for the thousands of occupations which today occupy the working hours of men and women. But we do live in a mechanized world where basic training in industrial processes should be taught to a large percentage of high school students. Many of those who drop out because the courses do not meet their needs could be retained, and others who do not attend could be induced to do so, were there "practical" courses for them to pursue such as those proposed for Farmville and American City.

It is by no means necessary to offer all kinds of vocational opportunities in every Farmville. Adequate information, including field trips, is basic. Foundation courses in vocations should be provided in agriculture, homemaking, business, and mechanics, supplemented by *work in the school cafeteria*, the *frozen food locker*, or some other community business activity. Many schools now provide such opportunities.

Curriculum revision. The provision of industrial, homemaking, or vocational courses will not alone make high school palatable to all of those who now drop out; only about one-fourth of those who discontinue say they do so because of the curriculum. As was pointed out in 1940 by a group of distinguished educators, the "regular" program of the high school at the ninth-grade level — the traditional beginning point for nearly one-half of the youth in the United States — consists of algebra, ancient history, English grammar, and Latin.[2] These

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[2] American Council on Education, *What the High School Ought To Teach.* Prepared for the American Youth Commission. (Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1940), 36 p.

subjects have inherent values for a few students destined for specific vocational fields, but by no stretch of the imagination can they be called an *adequate introduction to the high school* for all American youth. The alternative program, suggested by the educators just mentioned, included reading, study of personal problems, work experience, and social studies. The Educational Policies Commission suggests major attention be given to occupational fitness, visiting industrial plants, tryout courses, and differentiated specialized vocational or terminal courses, particularly in Grade XIII and XIV.

Education for civic competence is recommended through a course in "common learning" (see Chapter 8) and through experiences in the community. In addition to vocational competence and citizenship, it is proposed that the high school program include opportunities to explore intellectual interests and to know and practice health habits. The secondary school must provide a core of common integrating experiences, together with numerous opportunities for individual choice.

A promising development in curriculum building is the cooperative venture sponsored by the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute for school experimentation. The Institute is working actively with about a dozen school systems including: Battle Creek, Michigan; Bucks County, Pennsylvania; Charlotte, North Carolina; Denver, Colorado; Glencoe, Illinois; Kansas City, Missouri; Montgomery County, Maryland; New York, New York; Radford, Virginia; Springfield, Missouri; and Tuskegee Institute, Alabama. In addition to the efforts of the cooperating schools, the Institute sends field workers to the various communities frequently during the year to consult with and assist local faculty members in solving educational problems.

Sensitizing teachers to the developmental tasks of adolescents. All too often teachers are unmindful of, and frequently unaware of, many of the adolescents' most serious problems. The temptation is great to become preoccupied with traditional subject matter. Moreover, in many cases the teachers' professional preparation did not sensitize them to the needs of growing boys and girls.

As a matter of fact, although the development of young people in high school is social and emotional as well as intellectual, the young people are particularly preoccupied with their social development. Chapter 3 summarizes the problems.

Anyone who carefully *observes* adolescents knows that *conversation in the halls and locker rooms as well as in the family car on the way to school is concerned* with "a spiffy new pair of shoes" or "a darling way to do your hair." The binomial theorem does not rise to the conversational level, nor does the value of the quadratic equation even enter consciousness, although inquiry may reveal that both are thoroughly understood.

Teachers need to be cognizant of the many other developmental problems of adolescents. Their attempts at intellectual guidance will be largely fruitless if they ignore the physical, emotional, *and social adjustments that are vital for teen-age boys and girls*. Therefore, because all too often teachers are not aware of such problems, *an in-service training program is imperative.*

Adequate guidance service is needed. Although good teachers have always served unofficially as counselors for young people, it is readily apparent that special counselors are also necessary. Certainly not every small school can be expected to have a full-time personnel officer, nor can it be asserted that guidance is entirely absent from those schools that have no specialized or designated guidance officer. However, if every young person is to be provided with a counselor who has time for individual interviews and who can help him plan his educational program and choose his vocation wisely, a major expansion of guidance services is inevitable.

In the mythical communities, Farmville and American City, guidance is furnished not only to in-school but also to out-of-school youth as well. *In some schools,* guidance *is provided in* the "core" or "common learnings" course which occupies one-third to one-half of the school day. In others it is provided by *specialists who confer with students and make information* available to teachers, who themselves constitute a large part

of the guidance corps. Placement on the job, part- or full-time, occupational information, and counseling are so intimately related that they cannot be separated in practice. Probably one full-time counselor for 150 to 200 students is necessary if adequate guidance is to be provided as it has been here briefly outlined. It is generally assumed that the counselor can teach one class daily if the counseling load does not exceed 200, but if counselors are to teach half-time, more of them will need to be provided.

The Junior College

Extension of the program upward. Our best estimates indicate that about 1,750,000 young people enter the labor market each year. With the exception of the war years, young people have had difficulty in securing jobs when they finished school.

Extending the school program postpones the entrance of young people into the labor market and makes it more orderly. It also enables many to secure training at the semi-professional level in accounting, aviation, clerical practices, home management, dental hygiene, medical secretaryship, nursing, photography, recreational leadership, and other areas. The junior college has flourished most vigorously in California where it has adequate state support. There, too, the semi-professional courses have been provided in greater variety than in most areas of the United States.

Junior colleges are of two principal types: a separate two-year unit beyond the twelfth grade, and a four-year unit, Grades XI-XIV, closely articulated with the secondary school. Where physical facilities allow it, there can be little question that the four-year unit is the preferred type because it makes for fewer administrative units in the school system and thereby provides for better curriculum articulation. It also facilitates the guidance program since there is one program rather than two. The four-year unit seems to be particularly qualified to provide terminal courses. For two decades the 6-4-4 plan has been gaining slowly in popularity. One of the widely known schools of this type is the four-year junior college at Pasadena,

California, inaugurated in 1928. However, the four-year unit does not meet the need of all types of communities. It is most effective in city systems and is much less effective, frequently impossible, in rural areas where the enrollment in high school will not support a local junior college. There it becomes necessary to have a separate area, district, or county unit so that sufficient enrollment can be recruited.

The Junior High School

Extension of program downward. About 40 years ago the first junior high schools were established to bridge the gap between elementary and high schools and to provide a wholesome environment in which adolescents could benefit by the guidance of a faculty that knew and understood them and would "walk with them until they were able to walk alone." In the intervening years nearly all city school systems have adopted some form of reorganized secondary school, either separate junior high schools or combined six-year junior-senior high schools. Over one-half of the students of junior high school age are enrolled in reorganized secondary schools, but less than one-half of the schools have been reorganized. Reorganization in itself does not guarantee the adaptation of secondary education to adolescent needs, but wherever it is carried out as the expression of such adaptation it represents another forward step in bringing education to every boy and girl. In the sense of physical completion, the job is scarcely half done, and needs to be completed in the decades that lie ahead.

The junior high school is in a particularly advantageous position to meet the needs of adolescents through curriculum adjustment because it can provide a curriculum more nearly geared to the developmental tasks of young people. As a result of the practice of nearly automatic promotion through the grades, junior high schools receive many boys and girls who are weak in the fundamental skills of reading and arithmetic. Some schools, therefore, provide special remedial classes in reading and other basic skills where those who are handicapped may develop the needed ability.

In some of the better junior high schools reading is taught on three levels: for the *seriously retarded,* the somewhat retarded, and for normal readers; further differentiation is provided within classes according to individual needs. In addition, reading materials on *several levels of ability are provided in social studies and science classes* so that all may find challenging material at their own respective levels of ability. This may take the form of a multiple-track curriculum or of differentiation within classrooms — both of which have their advantages. In similar fashion, the work in mathematics is organized so that slow learners may in three years learn the computational skills and the basic mathematical understandings necessary for successful living in contemporary society. More time in maturing is required by some youngsters than by others. The well-planned junior high school, with its sympathetic and understanding faculty, is an ideal place for such delayed development.

Many junior high schools have difficulty with overage slow learners who create disciplinary problems and tend to drop out of school as soon as the law allows. However, the schools that have developed a curriculum in which all students can enjoy success find that their disciplinary problems have diminished almost to the vanishing point.

Another of the basic objectives of the junior high school, already mentioned, is to bridge the gap between the elementary school and the senior high school. With the longer period of compulsory school attendance, this objective has sometimes partially dropped from view. But the better junior high schools are bridging the curriculum gap between the one-teacher, elementary-school, required curriculum and the multiple-teacher, departmentalized curriculum of the senior high school. In some cities this takes the form of a core curriculum: a teacher works with a single group of boys and girls for a full half-day session using problems from many areas as the bases for study. In other cities, the children spend one-half day with one teacher who is responsible for English, mathematics, guidance, and social studies; during the other half-day they go to various special teachers for their physical education, shop work, fine arts, music, and home economics.

Administratively the junior high school makes for flexibility in the school system in times of expanding or shrinking enrollment. A few years ago when the crest of the high school enrollment wave reached the secondary schools, junior high schools often served as shock absorbers. By keeping the tenth grade in the junior high school, some cities were able to use their school plants to maximum capacity and avoid unnecessary building. Another wave of enrollment is now entering the kindergarten and primary grades and for the next 15 years will be surging through the schools. Again the junior high schools, where they have been established, can provide a reservoir of needed flexibility.

THE COSTS OF EXTENSION

Providing for the youth. The kind of school system envisaged here is not inexpensive; it may well cost two or three times what is now being spent on education. Many national commissions have studied the matter carefully; always they have indicated that more money is necessary. Frequently federal aid has been suggested as the only way in which some of the poorer states can hope to achieve anywhere near equality of opportunity. Recently, thoughtful students of education have discerned another obstacle to adequate financial aid in the rapidly expanding payments to those past 65 years of age. It is estimated that the number of persons 65 years of age or older will increase from 11 million in 1950 to 18.5 million in 1980. At that time the percentage of the population over 65 will be almost double what it is now. The interests of education for young people and security for the aged will come into conflict for the taxpayer's dollar.

Conservation of resources. During the past three centuries the people of the United States have used their natural resources lavishly. As a result there is a dwindling supply of oil, most of the forests have been depleted, and thousands of tons of the best top soil have been lost through soil erosion. Other of our natural resources have been squandered recklessly. For the past

generation there has been a growing conviction that our natural resources, both human and material, must be conserved so that a better life can be provided for all our citizens. Gradually secondary schools are beginning to teach conservation. But here, too, is a development that awaits the next generation.

Making educational opportunities universally available. Throughout Chapter 5 we have indicated that our citizens are mobile, that the educational load is unequal in various parts of the United States, and that democracy implies that everyone should have an opportunity to develop his talents to the limit of his ability irrespective of his place of residence or the economic status of his family. Although there is widespread and growing conviction that opportunity must be available, the evidence presented earlier indicates that it is not. In order to equalize school opportunity within states, nearly all now provide some sort of foundation program. Much more remains to be done.

Opportunity can be equalized, too, by making work-experience programs readily available so that those who need to earn the money for incidental expenses can readily do so. Costs of supplies, books, and other "hidden tuition costs" may be absorbed by higher taxes or state aid to education.

But there are just as grave differences in ability to support education between states as there is within states. Broadly speaking, this load is heaviest where the resources are most meager; it is from these areas that migration is heaviest. In general, the South would profit most from federal aid; the bulk of the money necessary to finance the program would come from the cities and the industrial areas. Although there has been agitation for federal aid for more than two decades it has never been achieved. Bills have passed the Senate of the United States, but have not come to a vote in the House of Representatives. The bills, which passed in the Senate by very substantial margins, provided that a small amount of money be distributed to all states on the basis of school-age population. A much larger amount would be distributed on the basis of need in the state. The formula for distribution considered both edu-

cational load and financial ability; most of the money would
go to the South.

The bill never came to a vote in the House because it could
not be reported out of committee. The Senate bill provided
that the money granted to the state could be distributed on the
same basis as state money. Thus, in one state public money
could have been paid to parochial schools; in several states
"fringe benefits" such as textbooks and bus-rides could have
been provided for parochial and private schools. The Roman
Catholic Church has consistently taken the position that text-
books, lunch subsidy, and bus-rides are assistance to individuals
and not to the private institution. The House Committee on
Education was unwilling to allow this interpretation; thus, over
a political issue, federal aid has been denied where it is sorely
needed. In commenting on the problem, the legislative com-
mittee of the National Education Association said in part after
the first session of the Eighty-first Congress:

On May 5, the Senate passed by a vote of 58 to 15 a bill — S246 —
called by able students in the field the best federal aid measure ever
offered in the Congress.

In the House Committee on Education and Labor, to which S246
and other federal aid bills were referred, the issue was complicated
by a controversy, sectarian in origin, as to whether federal funds
should be used for services to nonpublic-school children.

Advocates of federal aid for nonpublic-school youth demand that
federal funds be administered in most states by a federal agency in
Washington working directly with local nonpublic schools. This
procedure "runs around" state constitutions, state laws, and state
educational authorities. It institutes a federally supported system
of private education which, as an exception in permanent national
policy, is to many people prophetic of the future decline of state
school programs and the rise of a highly centralized system of
education administered and controlled in Washington.

The issue of aid to children in private schools cannot, therefore,
be divorced from its impact upon the established system of Amer-
ican government in relation to education. This system is based upon
state control of school policies. Within its framework is ample
opportunity through the democratic process to work out success-
fully the controversial questions in education.[3]

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[3] "Federal Aid with State Control," *Journal of the National Education Asso-
ciation*, Volume XXXVIII, November, 1949, No. 8, p. 571.

The issue was exactly the same in the second session of the Eighty-first Congress. Thus, federal aid for public education remains one of the unfinished tasks for those now entering education as a career. Many thoughtful persons believe that direct operational aid to public education may well be postponed indefinitely and that aid for public school buildings is a much more realistic consideration.

The Needs of Youth

Safety and health. During World War II nearly 40 per cent of the men called for military service were rejected. In many cases the mental and physical defects that caused this high percentage of rejections could have been eliminated had they been discovered and treated in their early stages.

It is not the fault of the secondary schools in the United States that these young people were physically unfit for military service. Many of them, of course, are perfectly able to serve in civilian life where the rigors and physical demands are not so severe. If the society in which we live wishes to have physical fitness, the school is one area in which it can be developed. Since all the children are in school, it would be possible to give each child a periodic thorough physical examination. Nurses could be hired to call remediable defects to the attention of the family physician. If the family was indigent, the child could be cared for in a free public clinic.

In the Scandinavian countries, New Zealand, and Australia, the school has been used as a basis for furnishing dental and medical care for children up to the age of 18. To some of our citizens this smacks of state socialism, to others it seems a way in which every child can be assured of physical well-being when he reaches adulthood.

A number of young men were unfit for military service because they had not had enough to eat. The partially subsidized school lunch program is a step in this direction although it was not undertaken primarily *for the welfare of the children.* It was undertaken primarily to get rid of agricultural surpluses. In a number of the Scandinavian countries and in parts of the British

Commonwealth free lunches are furnished to all children in school irrespective of family income. This, again, is a way to provide for the physical well-being of some young people. But not all of the citizens are in favor of such a program.

The school can also do much more than has been done in teaching safety. Since most school accidents happen on the playground or in the shops, instruction in safety has been given in these areas. Basic rules of safety with regard to behavior in the home, the classroom, and during the trip to and from school can also be profitably included. By teaching children the need for care with regard to the hazards of modern automobile traffic, the elementary schools have performed a modern miracle by virtually eliminating serious accidents to children travelling to and from school. Since the largest number of traffic accidents involve drivers under the age of twenty-three, the school can perform a valuable service by assuming the responsibility for educating youth to the principles of careful, courteous driving.

Imperative needs of youth. A group of eminent scholars in secondary education have stated the ten imperative needs of youth as a follow-up to the publication of the Educational Policies Commission in *Education for All American Youth.*[4] These imperative needs may be considered the most recent authoritative statement of the problem confronting secondary education. They may be extended to include all of the problems mentioned in this chapter, although their phraseology does not explicitly name them. They are included here as another statement of the challenge to young people who enter secondary school teaching.

(1) All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and

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[4] The persons responsible for this publication, the "Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age," *Bulletin 145,* the National Association of Secondary School Principals, March 1947, p. 7-146 are: Will French, Professor of Education, Teachers College; Bertie Backus, Principal Alice Deal High School, Washington, D C.; R. S. Gilcrest, Assistant Superintendent of Schools. Pasadena, California, J. Dan Hull, U.S. Office of Education; J. Paul Leonard. Pres., San Francisco State College; Grant Rahn, Director of High Schools. Long Beach; H. H. Ryan, Assistant Commissioner of Education. Trenton, New Jersey; Paul Elbecker, Executive secretary of NASSP.

productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupation.

(2) All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness. This chapter describes in part what remains to be done to assure physical fitness for all people in the United States.

(3) All youth need to understand the rights and duties of citizens of a democratic society and to be diligent and confident in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state, the nation, and the world. It is clear, of course, that many schools have fulfilled this obligation. That not all have provided intelligently for good citizenship merely indicates that we shall need better opportunities in all schools. It is perfectly clear that we cannot do it by running a *dictatorial school* where young people have no share in building the program or in formulating the activities.

(4) All youth need to understand the significance of the family for individuals in society and the conditions conducive to successful family life. The need for this springs from the fact that one in four marriages ends in divorce. Many young people have good home training and others secure successful training for family life in the courses in home economics. But such courses are not widespread enough and many of them are concerned merely with details of sewing and cooking rather than with the vital issues of family life.

(5) All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received and the economic consequences of their act. Many young people are taking such courses in home economics and in social science.

(6) All youth need to understand the method of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of men. While many young people have profited greatly from science instruction in the high school, it will be necessary to develop courses in the consumer area rather than in the technical areas which have

been the major offering of science in secondary education.

(7) All youth need opportunities to develop an appreciation for music, literature, art, and nature. Again, we have no intention of indicating that many young people have not developed worthwhile skills for leisure-time activity in art, literature, music, and drama. We indicate only that it has not become universal and many more people ought to develop these skills.

(8) All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely. For a number of years the length of the work-week has been decreasing. Recreation *is necessary* in an industrial society in which work is repetitious and monotonous. For good mental health, everyone should develop some recreational skills. These may be hobbies, club work, workshops in the family home, photography, or a hundred other activities. Again, many young people have made a good beginning, but by no means has recreational skill become universal.

(9) All youth need to develop respect for other persons and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others. Young people are not instinctively opposed to persons of other faiths *or races*. Prejudice has developed largely by association with their elders in the community. The school has done as much and often more than any other institution to develop tolerance, particularly in communities where there are large numbers of foreign-born persons and many racial groups. This work needs to be extended in the decades that lie ahead.

(10) All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding. Probably the best way in which this can be accomplished is to provide young people with an opportunity to develop habits of participation in the control of their activities in school. They should have opportunity to listen to discussions in the community and to examine them carefully in the classroom. Some communities are unwilling to have vital social issues studied by the young people as a part of their training; this attitude will have to be overcome.

For the past 50 years our school system has been developing toward the goals listed here. But the job is far from completion.

For the young people now entering teaching, these goals represent the challenge and the opportunity to be found in secondary education.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. What suggestions can you make to improve the proposals for the Farmville school?
2. Should all high school students take some vocational courses?
3. What are the advantages of a small high school? What are the disadvantages?
4. Describe the differences in guidance service that might be expected between the small and the large school.
5. What are the unique contributions of the junior college?
6. To what extent has the country accepted the junior college idea?
7. Describe a school you have seen that could be called a regional or an area school.
8. Under what conditions are regional or area schools likely to be necessary?
9. Discuss the unique contributions of the junior high school.
10. Discuss the cooperative needs of youth. (It is suggested that this question be discussed by a panel organized from the members of the class.)

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7

The Historical Background of the American Secondary School

Clarence Hines

Three separate and distinct institutions, the Latin grammar school, the academy, and the high school, have marked the development of the secondary school in America. The academy and the high school have been distinctively American, but each of the three has been definitely the product of the social, economic, and political conditions of the times in which it flourished. Authorities generally recognize the effective periods of these institutions as about 1635 to 1800 for the Latin grammar school, 1750 to 1890 for the academy, and from 1821 to the present for the high school.

The New England Colonies, because of their religious, political and social organization, were particularly adapted to the development of education in general and of secondary education in particular. The Founding Fathers enacted laws concerning schools, as they did regarding other things, for the purpose of perpetuating their ideas concerning religion, social class distinctions, and government. Conditions which favored the development of the Latin grammar school in New England were: the close connection between church and state, a relatively homogeneous population grouped in compact settlements,

and motives and traditions that strongly favored education. Of the motives for secondary education in New England, religion undoubtedly supplied the strongest incentive. To prepare men for the ministerial leadership required by the Puritan church, college education was essential and it required preparatory training in a secondary school. The Latin grammar school was transplanted from England to New England to meet this need.

THE LATIN GRAMMAR SCHOOL

The Latin grammar school was not, however, a single purpose institution. In addition to its responsibility for preparing boys for college in order that they might later serve the church as ministers, it also prepared others for service to the state. Schools which were nearest the colleges appear to have emphasized college preparatory work while others farther removed from the centers of higher learning appear not to have stressed college preparation. Although college preparation was the most important function of the Latin grammar school, it must be remembered that the institution existed in and was established to serve a social, religious, and political order in which the church and the state were almost one entity.

It has been generally accepted that the Boston Latin Grammar School was founded in 1635 as the first of the institutions of its type in America. Records reveal that in that year one Philemon Pormont was asked to become schoolmaster, but the record does not show that school was actually opened or that funds were appropriated for such a school before 1643.[1] The origin of the Boston Latin Grammar School appears to be clouded in uncertainty in spite of common acceptance of 1635 as the year of its establishment. The school at Dorchester in 1639 may have been the first to be supported entirely by public taxation. The Latin school was quite common in New England after 1647 when a law was passed requiring every town of 100 families or more to support a school in order that, in the words

[1] Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *The School in the American Social Order* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947), p. 61.

of the law, "learning might not be buried in the graves of our forefathers in church and in commonwealth." [2]

Grammar schools in the Middle Colonies. Although the first Latin grammar schools were founded in New England, particularly in Massachusetts, similar schools were founded in the Middle Colonies. The first such schools were in New Amsterdam in 1652, and in Virginia in connection with the College of William and Mary in 1693. Philadelphia had its first Latin school in 1697, later reorganized as the Penn Charter School in 1711. A school at Annapolis preceded the Philadelphia school by one year and the colonial assembly of Maryland passed a law in 1723 providing for a grammar school in each of the 12 counties. All of the colonies except Georgia developed the school to some extent, but it never had the influence in the Middle and Southern Colonies that it had in New England.

The plantation system of the South resulted in a dispersal of population. The economic and social interests of the planters made it possible for them to educate their sons abroad. Combined with these factors, the opposition of the Anglican Church to state-supported education was an effective barrier to widespread secondary education even of the restricted type offered by the Latin grammar school. In the Middle Colonies, on the other hand, the early development of commercial interests through trade and commerce led to modifications of the Latin grammar school curriculum in the direction of more practical courses in accounting, navigation, surveying, and mathematics. [3]

Such schools as were found throughout the colonies were not always known by the same name. They were called "Latin school" or "grammar school" because their curriculums consisted chiefly of Latin, Greek, or Hebrew grammar. They were also called "free" schools, but not because they were tax-supported. Some of their support came from tuition with rates being fixed by law or by custom. They were called "free," there-

[2] Paul Monroe, *Foundings of the American Public School System* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), p. 148

[3] Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919), p. 28.

fore, not as we understand the meaning of free schools today, but because of the "liberal" education they offered. The term "liberal" was used to describe the schools in the sense that the education they offered befitted a man of free birth. Some were called "endowed" schools because of a prevalent method of support. A few appear to have been referred to as "public schools" probably because of their place in the social economy and philosophy of the times. They were also referred to as "trivial schools" due to the fact that their offerings were limited to three fields consisting of the *trivium*: Latin grammar, rhetoric, and logic.

Regardless of the name by which it was called, the Latin grammar school in New England has been characterized as essentially a town free school, maintained by the towns for the higher education of some of their boys. Although some authorities have insisted that the grammar school was aristocratic, the following quotation indicates that view was not universal:

> ... The Colonies looked upon the Latin grammar school as a component part of the institutional organization of an independent community. To these forefathers of ours that was the institution which represented "education" as we think of it now. Education ... [as] formulated for the training of leaders in society, was represented by the Latin grammar school.
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> Only when we consider the school as the instrument by which talent is winnowed from the chaff of mediocrity, and ability developed to leadership in church, in state, and in the business and social affairs of men, can we estimate these schools as did our forefathers.[4]

Boys ordinarily entered the Latin grammar school at the age of eight or nine and remained until they could meet the requirements for entrance into college, ordinarily at between fourteen and eighteen years of age. The boy was taken directly from the Dame School and was taught to read and write and prepare his own quill pens, in addition to mastering sufficient Latin grammar to enter college. Although poorly prepared to write English with any degree of fluency or accuracy and without any knowledge of numbers, he was well prepared in Latin and usually in

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[4] Paul Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 157.

Greek as well. To attain this degree of proficiency, schools were in session throughout the year, except for church or established holidays, and the hours of the sessions were long, often eight or more hours a day. Control was rigorous:

Corporal punishment was severe and frequent; it was used as an incentive to study, a penalty for failure in acquisition, a means of discipline for "training the will," as well as punishment for bad conduct or breaches of rule.[5]

Such an education was primarily a classical education for a very small group of boys and not at all like secondary education as we know it today.

The curriculum. No actual account of the curriculum of a Latin grammar school prior to 1712 is known to students of the history of the institution. Knowledge concerning the subjects taught has been drawn chiefly from the requirements for teaching in the school and from college entrance requirements of the period. The ability to read Cicero and Virgil extemporaneously was required by Harvard as early as 1636 and this was the standard requirement for college entrance until 1745 when Yale added arithmetic. In general it has been said that the objective of the school was to prepare boys for college by developing in them skill in Latin composition, both prose and verse, some knowledge of Greek grammar, and the ability to read simple Greek. The work of the school has been summarized as follows:

The Boston Latin School, however, can scarcely be regarded as typical of the Latin schools of the seventeenth century. . . .

[Boston had a separate Latin school while many towns did not.]

But many Latin schools, so-called, were not separate from the school which gave instruction to younger children in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Frequently, the Latin school master devoted most of his time to the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic and gave the remainder of his time to the preparation of a few boys for entrance to Harvard.[6]

The individual method of instruction (the students were

[5] Paul Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 159

[6] Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *op. cit.*, p. 72

called one by one to appear before the master to recite their lessons) was generally employed. The whipping post was a standard item of school equipment and severe punishment was administered frequently to the dullards and shirkers who failed to do their work well. The "great American textbook" for more than a century was *Cheever's Accidence*, prepared by Ezekiel Cheever, one of the best known of the early Latin schoolmasters, and published prior to 1650.

The schoolmaster. The key figure in the education offered by the Latin grammar school, as is the case in any educational institution, was the master or teacher. Once this individual was chosen, the methods and curriculum were left in his hands. Prior to his employment, he was examined by the minister representing the church. The examination tested not only his mastery of the subjects to be taught but whether he was sound in the faith and capable of exerting the proper influence on the youth of the town. As the public official standing next in importance to the minister, he received about one-half as much salary as that dignitary, was considered to belong to the town, and could be loaned or released only by town consent. The schoolmaster often aspired to the ministry; many actually were ministers awaiting a call who resigned as schoolmasters when offered a pulpit. The masters "were necessarily men of learning, usually men of high character, always men of repute and influence in their community" and were allowed "the title of Mr., then allowed only to the chosen few." [7] For the most part Latin grammar schoolmasters were men with a good classical education, sound in the Puritan faith, and able teachers.

Many factors contributed to the decline of the Latin grammar school after more than a century of existence in the English colonies in America. Basically, however, each had its origin in the changing social, economic, political, and religious pattern. Although continued by law in Massachusetts until 1827, this type of school had lost much of its effectiveness by the time of the Revolution. Before the Revolution, interest in Latin had declined to the point where few students studied Latin alone.

[7] Paul Monroe, *op. cit.*, p 154.

For example, in the famous Roxbury School in 1770 only nine of the 85 pupils were studying Latin.

Changed economic conditions. Conditions throughout the colonies, but particularly in New England, changed materially in the three-quarters of a century preceding the Revolution. Of particular significance in connection with the decline of the Latin grammar school was the rise of a class of merchant-capitalists and large landowners who required for their business activities men trained in subjects more practical than Latin. These men engaged in trade by exporting surplus commodities and importing slaves and rum. They had heavy investments in ships and shipping. As they accumulated wealth, they speculated in western lands. Their activities required the use of such skills as were acquired through a study of navigation, accounting, and surveying. While this merchant class developed, farmers and artisans also became more articulate in legislative bodies. The "Great Awakening," a religious movement of great force, occurred during the decade following 1730 and led to the *recognition of denominations other than the Puritans or the Anglicans in the life of America.*

More specifically, there are particular indications of things that speeded the decline of the Latin grammar school. Permanent teachers became difficult to secure and the religious influence came to have less significance. As the early emigrants from England and Europe died, their children and grandchildren were less and less influenced by the ideas of education brought from the old world and looked more toward a system of education adapted to American colonial needs. The dispersal of population, particularly in the New England towns, caused *a demand for separate schools and led eventually to the district* system. Repudiation of the class system of society carried with it the repudiation of class education. The rising middle class demanded an institution of secondary education suited to its needs. Commenting on this from the standpoint of the cost of such education, Edwards and Richey have written,

The establishment of a sufficient number of secondary schools to provide the training demanded by the new clientele probably would

have required more funds than could have been made available under existing and acceptable plans of taxation. Certainly such a program would have resulted in a tax burden which would have been intolerable to a people not yet convinced that education beyond the merest rudiments was a function of the state and a legitimate charge upon government. . . .

The Latin grammar schools tended to die out. . . . In a large measure, it was left for private teachers to sense the demands that a changing society was making on the lower schools. They were experimenting with new content and new methods, and it would not be long before the work they were doing would be institutionalized in the academy. . . .[8]

The Latin grammar school, then, served its purpose as the secondary school of a religious and political social order based on class distinction and in which church and state were virtually one. As these conditions changed, this type of school no longer met the needs of either a capitalistic merchant class or the middle class that developed as a result of expanded business and mercantile activities. Unable to adapt its rigid curriculum to these changed conditions, and without adequate financial support through public taxation, the Latin grammar school gave way to the academy with its private system of financing and more liberal curriculum.

THE ACADEMY

The rise of the academy is generally dated from the founding of Franklin's "Academy and Charitable School" in Philadelphia in 1751, but work of a similar nature had been given by private teachers at least a quarter of a century earlier. In 1723, an account in a New York newspaper described a school closely resembling the later academies. From newspaper advertisements we know that as early as 1700, and possibly earlier, in the larger cities private teachers were giving instruction in almost any subject for which there was a demand.[9] The academy, therefore, had its inception in the private schools and private

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[8] Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *op. cit.*, pp. 125, 271.

[9] Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *op. cit.*, p. 123.

teachers who offered courses in the practical subjects required by a changing social and economic order.

Early academies. The first academies were essentially private institutions arising from church foundations, local subscription, or endowment. Although assisted by the towns, counties, and states to some extent, they were operated on a tuition basis. Maryland went further than some states by authorizing lotteries for academy benefit from 1801 to 1817. A great many of the academies were church-sponsored, particularly in the Middle and Southern States where there was a heavy influx of Scotch and Scotch-Irish immigrants. These people were mostly Presbyterian and had well-educated ministers who were opposed to an established church. Some of the best and strongest of the early academies were under their auspices.

There is general agreement among authorities who have studied the rise of the academy in the United States that it grew out of the changes taking place in the life of the country. The decline of the Latin grammar school and the rise of the academy have been traced to the inability of the small districts to support a good secondary school, thus leaving the way open for private interests to start the academy. The rise of the academy may also be attributed to strong democratic and nationalistic trends accompanied by vast and far-reaching economic and social changes. Perhaps the best summary has been given in these words,

The academies were a product of the age . . . As the frontier was pushed westward, a new kind of social and economic life evolved and a growing middle class emerged. Young persons other than prospective ministers and the sons of planters and merchants began to manifest an interest in obtaining education beyond that of the dame school, the oldfield school, or the reading and writing school. Moreover, they wanted an education more practical than that offered in the Latin schools which were still dominated by classical tradition and religious purpose.[10]

Benjamin Franklin first proposed his academy in 1743 when he suggested a school to teach everything that was useful and

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10 Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *op. cit.*, pp. 270-271.

everything that was ornamental, but said that since time was limited the school must concentrate on those things that were most useful and most ornamental. The school, known as the "Academy and Charitable School," opened in 1751 with three divisions: Latin, English, and Mathematical. The Latin branch soon grew into a college which later became the University of Pennsylvania; the English and Mathematics divisions continued at the secondary level. Franklin's academy was the first chartered academy, hence dates the beginning of the movement, but it represented only the institutionalization of the private school movement that had been under way in practically all American cities for a generation or more.

Academies in New England. The first academies in New England were the Phillips academies in Massachusetts: one founded at Andover in 1778 and another at Exeter in 1781. These were not regarded as an unmitigated blessing, however, as is shown by a statement in the address made by Samuel Adams on the occasion of his inauguration as governor in 1795. Adams said, in part:

> It is with satisfaction that I have observed the patriotic exertions of worthy citizens to established academies in various parts of the Commonwealth. It discovers a zeal highly to be commended. But while it is acknowledged that great advances have been derived from these institutions, perhaps it may be justly apprehended that multiplying them may have a tendency to injure the ancient and beneficial mode of education in town grammar schools.
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> The peculiar advantages of such schools is that the poor and the rich may derive equal benefit from them; but none except the more wealthy, generally speaking, can avail themselves of the benefit of the academies. Should these institutions detach the attention and influence of the wealthy from the generous support of the town schools, is it not to be feared that useful learning, instruction, and social feelings in the early parts of life may cease to be so equally and universally disseminated as it has heretofore been? [11]

The spread of the academy movement was quite rapid after 1800 and was at its peak between 1830 and 1870. Although

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[11] Ellwood P. Cubberly, *Readings in Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), p. 216.

academies appear to have been more numerous in the South than elsewhere, various institutions which were called academies in the South, as in other sections, were probably little more than elementary schools. In 1820 the academies were almost alone in providing the opportunities for instruction at the secondary level, and between 1830 and 1860 few indeed were the communities that did not have access to one or more of them. In 1833 there were almost 500 academies in 14 states.

Characteristic features of the academies were that they were subject to semi-public control, offered a broadened curriculum, displayed in many instances a strongly religious purpose, and provided for the extension of secondary education to girls. They were supported generously by gifts from individuals, charged a tuition fee, had dormitories and boarding halls, and eventually became quasi-state institutions through state aid extended to them. In both curriculum and method of support, the academy is recognized as a transition school between the partially tax-supported Latin grammar school for a limited few in the early period of secondary education in this country and the public high school of the present day which offers opportunity to all youth without tuition. For most youth, however, it was a terminal school giving instruction in a wide variety of practical and cultural subjects while permitting the student, if he wished to do so, to prepare for college.

Although state aid for academies was never large, it was a matter of considerable importance in establishing the principle of public support of secondary education from public funds. The states generally gave aid by charter or through subsidy to individual academies or by general laws providing for a number of similar institutions throughout the state. Governor DeWitt Clinton of New York was an early friend of the academies and advocated locating them in all county towns to furnish a useful education for the farmers, merchants, and mechanics, and to train teachers for the common schools. Some states, notably Kentucky and Indiana, provided for a system of county academies; several other states extended to them some form of public aid. As noted above, Maryland provided for their support by a

lottery from 1801 to 1817. Regardless of the amount of state aid given, it was important in that it tended to fix in the minds of the people the state's responsibility for education beyond the common school. In a time when many were questioning the public financing of education even at the lower level, it is significant that some help was extended to the secondary school.

The curriculum of the academy. Extention of the curriculum over that offered in the Latin grammar school is the most commonly noted of all the characteristics of the academy. This expansion occurred in practically all fields of human knowledge but centered more particularly on those things that were of practical use in the life and work of the people of the times. This has been well stated by Smith in these words,

> The liberal curricular offering of the academy was by no means a chance matter. It was due to very definite causes. The epoch during which the academy played its main role witnessed a phenomenal expansion in the interests of the American people. In part the new interests were material and civic, and in part they were intellectual and cultural. The former were a direct outgrowth of the industrial revolution and the democratic movement; the latter owed their inception in the main to a growing contact with other nations and to the rise and spread of the scientific movement. During the major part of the period (1790-1890) the academy was practically the only educational institution which ministered to the intrinsically vital interests of the American people.[12]

English literature, grammar, mathematics, science, geography, history, and modern languages found their way into the academy curriculum. Subjects of a more modern nature, those involving the study of practical and useful things rather than words about things, were commonly taught in an effort to prepare youth for changed social conditions, business, and government. The extended offerings provided opportunity for a wide variety of interests and study that could be cultural, practical, or vocational. Examples of the practical and vocational aspects of the offerings of the academy, a factor often overlooked, were classes in farming at the Fellenberg School, Windsor, Connecti-

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[12] William A. Smith, *Secondary Education in the United States* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932), pp. 31-32.

cut, in 1824. At the Hartford Grammar School in 1839, a class was offered for 20 gentlemen who wished to prepare themselves for common school instruction.[13]

The early academies retained Latin and occasionally Greek but taught them through the medium of English. They also taught English grammar, oratory, declamation, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geography, astronomy, surveying, rhetoric, natural and moral philosophy. They admitted girls to a female department or a separate school, rather than allow them in the same classes as boys. The science subjects proved one of the most popular offerings of the academy curriculum. Most of the work was in small schools, usually with one instructor and one or more assistants. Only a small number had more than two teachers. Few academies enrolled more than 50 students at one time.

Objectives of education in the academies were to develop mental discipline, to teach reasoning, to develop the intellect, and to train the mental faculties. Many of the subjects, particularly the sciences, were to give information. Instruction was characterized by abundant drill, but demonstration experiments were common in the sciences since laboratory methods had not yet been developed. The New York Regents Reports for 1839 stated that storing the mind with useful knowledge was the great purpose of education and that in the process of doing so, increased energy, activity, and precision of the mental faculties should be developed.[14]

The "Golden Age" of the academy. The academy in the period of its greatest expansion reached only a small proportion of American youth of secondary school age. They were privately controlled tuition schools and this placed them beyond reach of the masses even though tuition rates were low. Public reaction against tuition charges for a school which in part was publicly supported led eventually to the establishment of the so-called "free academies" and public high schools. The states began to require the academies to take some students without

13 Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *op. cit.*, p. 398.
14 Paul Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 409.

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13 Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *op. cit.*, p. 398.
14 Paul Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 409.

charge, usually from the area in which they were located. They continued to receive contributions from individuals and organized groups. Probably not more than five per cent of the potential age group was served by the academy.

Careful consideration of the contribution of the academy to the development of the American secondary school leads to the conclusion that it was a necessary and important part of that development. The benefits derived from the academy movement were that it introduced the idea that secondary education should be provided for those not going to college, and that it enriched and extended the course of study. It introduced and developed secondary education for girls, and popularized, even if it did not democratize, secondary education. It prepared the public mind for universal secondary education in the United States. At the same time, it was essentially a private, often a denominational religious institution. Standards were not established because it was not a part of a state system. It did not equalize educational opportunity for all, and it was the greatest block to the early development of a really good public secondary school. The influence of the academy was probably greater than is generally realized, and those most conversant with the history of secondary education in the United States consider the movement a necessary forward step in the change from an aristocratic to a democratic system of secondary education. It crystallized American thinking in favor of a secondary school with a broad curriculum adapted to the needs and interests of all, and popularized secondary education to the extent that the people were willing to place it under public control and support. It led to the public high school which was planned to meet the needs of all the people's children.

THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

The public high school made its appearance on the American scene in 1821 while its two predecessors in secondary education were still in existence. The Latin grammar school had almost disappeared, but the academy was just approaching its peak.

Thomas Jefferson had envisioned a state-wide system of secondary schools for Virginia in 1779 which, if his plan had been accepted by a conservative legislature, might have set the pattern for a *public high school well in advance of the time* when the first one was established in Boston. Social, political, and economic conditions were as responsible for the establishment of the high school as they had been for the founding of its predecessors, perhaps more so since a much larger area and population were affected.

Of great importance in the establishment of the public high school was the widespread extension of universal manhood suffrage in the period after 1800. Only four states allowed male suffrage in 1789 when the Constitution was adopted and they required the payment of taxes. With the settlement of the western states after 1800, life on the frontier became a great leveler and made for social equality. Few men of wealth and position migrated to the west and there was little difference in the social and economic position of the emigrants. The result was that every state admitted after 1812, except Mississippi, provided for manhood suffrage at the time of its admission to the Union.

As long as the right to vote was restricted by church membership or property qualifications it made little difference whether a general system of education existed. Property owners were able to pay for the education of their children and those not allowed to vote did not need it. It has been effectively pointed out that,

With the extension of the suffrage to all classes of the population, poor as well as rich, laborer as well as employer, there came to thinking men, often for the first time, a realization that general education had become a fundamental necessity for the State, and that the general education of all in the elements of knowledge and civic virtue must now assume that importance in the minds of the leaders of the State that the education of a few for the service of the Church and of the many for simple church membership had once held in the minds of the ecclesiastics.[15]

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15 Ellwood P. Cubberly, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919).

Suffrage and education. The rise of the West, as evidenced by the movement known as Jacksonian Democracy which resulted in the election of Andrew Jackson as president in 1828, climaxed the struggle for participation by the farmers and laboring classes in government. Some of the northern states, notably Ohio in 1851 and Massachusetts in 1857, did not remove their restrictions on voting until almost the time of the Civil War. However, class rule was replaced by mass rule by 1860. The election of Jackson was a reaction against educated leadership in government, the triumph of a movement that gave the farmer and the working man an ever-increasing influence in the affairs of government.

Some men feared the extension of suffrage to the masses of men as a threat to good government while others, many quite prominent in the affairs of the nation, welcomed it and saw education as a necessity. Among this latter group was Governor DeWitt Clinton of New York who in 1826 declared that a general spread of knowledge was necessary to protect republican institutions. In addition, Abraham Lincoln in Illinois, Thaddeus Stevens in Pennsylvania, and Daniel Webster in Massachusetts placed themselves on record as considering education a necessity for successful and competent citizenship in a democracy.

The continued expansion of public education and the resulting widespread development of the public high school after 1825 was due not only to the extension of suffrage, but also to the growth of population and its concentration in cities, the development of manufacturing as a result of the industrial revolution, and the labor movement which gave the working class an organized influence. The first American factory was started in 1787 to be followed by a rapid expansion in the next 25 years. The Embargo Act of 1807, which cut off imports from England until after the War of 1812, gave impetus to many new manufacturing enterprises and the Protective Tariff, after 1820, insured their continuance. The resulting industrialization led to a concentration of wealth and labor, an admirable situation in that the wealth to be taxed and the children to be educated were at the same place. The Census of 1820 showed only 13

cities with more than 8,000 population and with only 4.9 per cent of the total; the Census of 1860 listed 141 cities with more than 8,000 and with 16.1 per cent of the total.

The purpose behind the establishment of the first high school in Boston in 1821 is clearly linked with needs occasioned by the spread of business and industry. At the time of the establishment of the first high school, Josiah Quincy, mayor of Boston, wrote in his *Municipal History of the Town and City of Boston*,

> In 1820 an English Classical School was established, having for its object to enable the mercantile and mechanical classes to obtain an education adapted to those children whom their parents wished to qualify for active life, and thus relieve them from the necessity of incurring the expense incident to private academies.[16]

Demand for tax support. It was soon recognized that an anomaly existed when tax-supported public education ended with the elementary school and the youth of the land, if interested in further education, must seek it in the tuition academy. Strong public demand for a tax-supported secondary school soon made itself felt, chiefly through the efforts of two widely dissimilar groups: the humanitarians on the one hand and the laboring classes on the other. It seemed only natural to these two groups, and to others, that an upward extension of tax-supported schools would provide for the education of the sons and daughters of the common people. The humanitarians were concerned particularly about the many social and moral problems incident to the concentration of peoples of mixed moral and cultural backgrounds in the cities. It was recognized, too, that a democracy could not continue to limit its leadership to those who could afford to pay for an education. The success of the democracy depended upon an educated citizenry and this in turn required the upward extension of the public school system to include the tax-supported secondary school. It was a fortunate coincidence that the industrial revolution, resulting as it did in a great increase in general prosperity and material wealth, made it possible to pay for these added responsibilities

Reasons for change. The Latin grammar school was superseded by the academy because it was not meeting the needs of enough youth due to its limited curriculum and purpose. The academy, however, did not give way to the public high school because of curriculum deficiencies. It disappeared because it could not, due to its tuition charges, make education at the secondary level available to a large enough proportion of the boys and girls of its day. The public high school continued much the same aims and purposes, and to a large extent the same curriculum, as the academy. It had the dual purpose of preparation for life and for college. In its organization, curriculum, and procedure, it resembled the academy but in its methods of support and control it was more like the Latin grammar school. It developed as a natural process of growth from the lower grades, an upward expansion of the elementary school. Its offerings were more restricted than those of the academy but it was a component part of the public school system and a further step in democratizing secondary education.

The name for the high school appears to have been brought to this country from Edinburgh, Scotland, through an article by a Professor Criscom published in January, 1824, in the Boston *North American Review.*[20] The article described the school in Edinburgh and the name was soon given to the English Classical School of Boston established in 1821. The institution admitted boys twelve years of age to a three-year curriculum if they were well-prepared in reading, writing, English grammar, and arithmetic as far as simple proportion. University graduation was required for all teachers and English was the only language taught. The opportunity for a high school education was offered the girls of Boston in 1826, but it was withdrawn in 1828 due to the heavy enrollment, the course of study being extended in the elementary school for girls.

High schools were almost entirely confined to the cities before 1860, but by the close of the Civil War the academy was no longer anywhere a serious threat to the newer school. Follow-

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[20] Ellwood P. Cubberly, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919), p. 190.

ing the war, economic and social conditions favored the rapid expansion of the institution and by 1890 it is reported to have cared for at least two-thirds of all secondary school pupils.[21] This period, 1860 to 1890, was characterized by an increase in the number of subjects and the standardization of the work offered. The business depression following the Civil War, culminating in the Panic of 1873, led to the usual demand for retrenchment in public expenditures and lower taxes. Since high schools were new, they came under attack. Labor troubles and strikes during the 1880's caused industrialists to blame the high schools for these difficulties. The high schools were accused of spoiling good working men by turning them into white-collar workers, "walking delegates," or labor agitators. The entire public school system was charged with being too ambitious and with educating people beyond their station in life.

In addition to winning its battle with the academy for the position as the American secondary school and the battle for public support between 1870 and 1890, the high school also broadened its curriculum. Mechanical arts and commercial high schools made their appearance, the former eventually coming to include both the mechanical arts and academic subjects. It is worthy of note that during this period English came to be taught as many hours as Latin. These curricular extensions indicate that the high school was expanding to meet the needs of all youth, regardless of their interests and abilities. By 1890, also, it was in most communities to a considerable extent a college preparatory institution. The changed concept of the high school's logical place in the education system of the country is well indicated by the following quotation:

The public high school . . . was not created to provide the middle rungs of an educational ladder, whereby one could mount from the lowest grade of the elementary school to the most advanced courses of the university, but more as a people's college — an extension of the elementary school. Except for the continued rise of the common man it might well have retained its terminal character. . . . Public

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[21] William A. Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 22. This should not be taken to mean that two-thirds attended secondary school.

demand, however, was making the high school a connecting link in a complete system of education. . . . By 1880, the high school existed, not only to give the older and more advanced children of the community a course of instruction appropriate to their age and needs, but was becoming, particularly in the West, the most important institution preparing for the university.[22]

Period of growth. Between 1890 and 1920 the development of the public high school was marked by a tremendous increase in enrollment and further attempts to expand its field of service to all youth of high school age. Where in 1890 it had been nominally open to the children of all the people, it was in reality essentially a class institution for the intellectually and socially superior. During this thirty-year period, enrollment in the high schools increased twelve times as rapidly as the population and by 1920 it enrolled nine-tenths of all pupils attending secondary school. It was during the same period, also, that the first junior colleges and junior high schools, marking the upward and downward extension, respectively, of the secondary school, were started. (See Chapter 4.)

Since 1920 the high school has followed in most respects the trends that were indicated after 1900. Vocational and educational guidance became necessary as a larger number of students with widely varying abilities and interests came to school. Compulsory attendance laws, usually requiring youth to remain in school until they reached the age of sixteen or completed the eighth grade, encouraged many to go to school, although the drop-outs at the end of the compulsory period continued to be high. These laws, reflecting changed social and economic conditions which made it impossible for urban youth to secure employment, made of the high school both a terminal and a custodial institution. A nationwide study, made in 1925, revealed that most leaders in the field of secondary education believed it to be the responsibility of the high school to furnish training in social-civic responsibility, recreational and aesthetic participaton, physical efficiency, and occupational efficiency.[23]

[22] Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *op. cit.*, pp. 818-819.

[23] Leonard V. Koos, *Trends in American Secondary Education* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1927), pp. 8-10.

At the same time and concurrently for the same individual, it must furnish general education, provide special programs for those who do not go on to college, and provide the opportunity for those who wish to supplement their general studies with such special studies as are appropriate to their needs.

Developments during the depression. The Great Depression of the 1930's brought a threat to the public high school from federally sponsored agencies for unemployed youth. The need for work relief was recognized by the federal government in the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration to provide work projects for youth of high school age. Educational programs were eventually authorized in connection with each of these agencies, resulting in some instances in a duplication of high school offerings or in actually taking youth from the public high schools where they were enrolled. The real danger, which was nullified at least temporarily by World War II, was that two systems of education would develop in the United States: one, a state system with local administration, would serve those who continued in school until they were employed; the other, a national system, would be responsible for youth and adults no longer enrolled in the public schools.[24] World War II, with its unprecedented opportunities for employment and its demand for military service, ended at least for the time being this threat to the public high school. Leaders in public education, who believe in a state system, are still conscious of the possible danger to the public secondary school from a national agency serving youth of high school age.

Some schools have made sincere attempts during the past few years to adjust their programs further in order to obviate the necessity for the extension of a federal institution or program into the field of secondary education. Their action has

[24] *The Civilian Conservation Corps, The National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools.* Educational Policies Commission. National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1941, p. 25. See also

Francis T. Spalding, *The Challenge for Secondary Education,* Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 25, No. 97, March, 1941, Washington, D.C., pp. 13-16.

been taken not so much through fear of a competing institution
with federal status and support, but through recognition of the
loss which would necessarily ensue if the high school is replaced
by a new institution. The high school has sought to borrow
from the N.Y.A. and the C.C.C. such good practices as it can
adapt to the education of in-school youth. Among the better
of these are work experience programs, part-time on the job
training, and community schools which serve the needs of all
youth, whether in school or out. As yet these improved practices
have not been adopted generally enough to materially change
secondary education. Their appearance, and their success where
they have been tried, have given encouragement to those leaders
in secondary education who hope that the high school will
be able to adapt to society's needs and not disappear as did
its predecessors. It is their hope, also, that any future federal
funds to assist in-school youth to secure an education will be
channeled through established state agencies and not directly
to the individual as was the case in the N.Y.A. To insure this,
the high school must show that it is meeting the needs of all
youth of secondary school age.

As the high school moves into the last half of the twentieth
century, it faces ever-increasing enrollments at a time when
more than seven out of ten youth of high school age already
attend high school. (See Chapter 4.) Its holding power is good
in the fourteen and fifteen-year-old age group with approxi-
mately 90 per cent enrolled, but of the sixteen and seventeen-
year-olds, only about two-thirds are in school. Bureau of Cen-
sus figures, said to be conservative by the U. S. Office of Educa-
tion, indicate that there will be a 29 per cent increase in high
school enrollment by 1960. Even though faced with this tre-
mendous increase in the next decade, the high school is making
plans to serve more effectively the larger number of youth who
come to it. As a result of a resolution introduced by Charles A.
Prosser at a conference on Vocational Education in Washington
in 1945, a program of Life Adjustment Education has been for-
mulated by the Office of Education to reach the 60 per cent
of youth of high school age who will not go directly into skilled

trades or enter college.[23] Deterrents to high school attendance and graduation recognized by the Life Adjustment Education program are the need and desire to help earn an income, lack of funds, clothing, or similar personal problems, inaccessibility of suitable schools and courses of instruction. The failure of many schools or teachers to provide high school instruction having sufficient meaning and appeal to the pupils and their parents has been a deterrent to high school attendance. (See Chapter 5.)

The satisfactory solution to the problems presented by the deterrents to high school attendance listed above must be worked out by the American people at a time and under conditions which present a challenge to them and to their professional employees, the teachers and administrators of the public secondary schools of the country. To provide adequate buildings in a time of greatly inflated costs and furnish qualified teachers with a vision of what really adequate secondary education can and ought to be is really a tremendous task. The history of public education in this country, and of secondary education in particular, has shown quite clearly, however, that the American people intend that the schools shall meet the needs of the times. With this conviction, the future can hold nothing but promise for public secondary education.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. Compare the objectives of the training offered by the three types of American secondary schools.
2. Compare the subjects offered by the three types of secondary schools as to their usefulness in the society that the school served.
3. Compare the course offerings of the Academy with those of the secondary school you attended.
4. Compare the methods of instruction used by your secondary school teachers with those used in the Latin grammar school.
5. Compare the requirements for the Latin grammar school master with those for teaching in a modern high school.

[23] Galen Jones, *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 1948, p. 15.

6. Compare the means of support of each of the three schools described in this chapter.

7. List the reasons why the Latin grammar school and the Academy were replaced by the high school.

8. In what ways do each of the three schools reflect the social and economic order of their times?

9. Why is free public secondary education considered a necessity in a democracy?

10. Why is the Kalamazoo Decision so significant in the history of the American secondary school?

11. Attack or defend the idea of a federally sponsored training institution for youth of secondary school age.

12. How do the chief problems confronting the American secondary school today compare as to nature and seriousness with those which confronted the Latin grammer school and the Academy?

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8

The Curriculum of the Secondary School

Hugh B. Wood

The major concern of the high school teacher in the classroom is the development of a curriculum for the benefit of each individual student. This includes not only the planning and organization of the experiences of young people, but also the way in which they are presented and taught. Upon the effectiveness of the teaching and the pertinence of the curriculum depends the success of the school. Many discipline problems, for example, can be traced to an inadequate, ineffective curriculum for some or all pupils. Emotional disturbances of teachers, frustrations about teaching, feelings of insecurity, or dissatisfaction with the results of one's efforts — all of these problems are likely to be related to the appropriateness of the curriculum and the manner in which learning activities are directed.

The school is built around the curriculum; administration exists to make the program effective. Parents are interested in "what our child is learning." Buildings are increasingly being planned in terms of curriculum needs.

Therefore, it is important that we examine the teacher's role in planning the curriculum and directing its development both

in and out of the classroom. This chapter discusses the general organization of the curriculum and presents some definitions, a brief historical background, some types and characteristics of curriculums, and some suggestions for curriculum improvement; the next chapter discusses the organization of courses and units.

Definitions of the curriculum. There are various concepts of the curriculum. One concept, formerly held by many educators, defined the curriculum as a body of knowledge set forth by textbooks or courses of study. Teaching consisted of presenting this knowledge in a systematic sequence for pupils to absorb as best they could. Frequently, rather effective learning took place, especially if the material was selected in terms of the true interests of pupils and the teacher understood youngsters.

This concept is still accepted by some teachers. Their goals and methods of teaching are established within the framework of a systematic outline of subject matter. Although this is not recognized as the ideal, certain teachers have had success with this concept over a period of years.

Another concept holds that the curriculum consists of the actual experiences of boys and girls, that they really learn only what they experience, and that the curriculum consists of what is learned, not what is set out to be learned. This concept, based on modern psychology of learning, does not deny the need for careful planning, nor does it imply a lack or over-all organization. Although there are extremists who maintain that all of the learning experiences of boys and girls should be allowed to develop spontaneously "on the spot," most advocates of this point of view believe that planning and organization are even more essential than formerly. They should operate in terms of experiences rather than a body of knowledge.

The objectives of modern education deal with behavior, not subject matter. Thus, learning is concerned with experiences that promote desirable behavior. By this concept, knowledge is what grows out of an experience, and subject matter is used to make the experience more meaningful. Subject matter consists of all of the materials, data, ideas, and resources used to enrich the experience.

The experience concept of the curriculum has introduced another important factor into the definition of the curriculum. According to the body-of-knowledge concept, all learning took place in the classroom. Obviously, however, boys and girls have experiences outside as well as inside the classroom. Thus, some persons have defined the curriculum as all of the experiences of youth; others, as only classroom experiences. In the modern school the latter definition is probably too narrow. Many of the richest and most worthwhile experiences occur in the corridors, at the football game, and in other out-of-class activities. On the other hand, the school cannot assume responsibility for *all* of youth's activities.

To summarize, the definition advocated in this book and held by forward-looking teachers today is: *The curriculum consists of the directed experiences of youth, classroom or otherwise, over which the school has jurisdiction and control.*

Other terms defined. There are several other curricular terms that are used frequently and that should be understood by teachers. Frequently, we refer to a pupil's *program*, meaning his individual pattern of experiences or his personal curriculum. This term has tended to supplant the term *program of studies*, which more aptly applied to the knowledge concept of the curriculum.

The term *subject* is used to designate a limited group of experiences or a body of knowledge such as history or reading. The term *area* designates a broader group of experiences formerly defined by several subjects, such as social studies or language arts.

The term *course* is used to designate a group of subjects or part of a curriculum followed by a group of pupils, such as a business education course. This includes four or six year's work in the business education area, the social studies, science, or some other subject or area. It is used to indicate the nature or major emphasis of the programs for a group of pupils.

The term *course of study* is still widely used to refer to a written outline of the curriculum, or a part of it, such as a subject or the work of one or several grades. This term may describe

either the body of knowledge or the experiences of the curriculum. It is, however, gradually being supplanted by the term *teacher's guide*, which implies more flexibility and more emphasis on teaching aids than the course of study did.

The various types of *units* are defined in the next chapter. Generally speaking, however, a unit may be thought of as a related group of experiences within a subject or area. Other terms, dealing with types of curriculums and their patterns of organization, will be defined as they are discussed in a later section.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The early schools. The curriculum of the modern American high school can best be understood through a brief analysis of the factors affecting its development. The earliest secondary school in this country was the Latin grammar school, whose major claims to being secondary lay in the fact that its clientele were adolescents and it provided training for direct entrance into what was then called college. Its curriculum was concerned primarily with Latin, Greek, grammar, Bible study, and some European and church history. Its purpose was to prepare young men for college and thence for the ministry. In terms of this objective, it presumably served its pupils well. (See Chapter 7.)

However, not all young men wanted to become ministers. As business developed in the colonies, there developed a demand for a more practical education — one that would serve youthful apprentices and provide practical business training. Thus arose a group of schools variously known as: "writing schools," to distinguish them from the Latin grammar schools which did not, at first, teach writing; "private venture" schools indicative of their method of support; "boarding schools," as some of them were; and "free" or "public" schools. The forerunners of the "academy," these schools were the first to attempt to provide a practical curriculum: writing, "cyphering," all branches of mathematics — geometry, algebra, geography, navigation, and merchants' bookkeeping — surveying, and some lo-

cal geography and history. Latin and Greek, having no practical value, were omitted from the curriculum of these schools. Because of their British prototypes, these schools were sometimes called English grammar schools. Some, particularly the boarding schools, admitted girls.[1]

Nineteenth-century education. Gradually the Academy, introduced about 1750, and the high school, introduced in 1821, gained in popularity and became the college preparatory and the practical schools of their time. Both served their purposes well for a while.

Gradually, however, the Academy gave way to the high school. Not only was the high school free, but it began to offer some college preparatory courses and thus provided a better opportunity for the pupil whose interest changed to shift from one program to another within the same school. Also, the curriculum of the high school was expanding much more rapidly to meet new interests and needs. By 1875, the high school curriculum included English, foreign languages, history, geography, economics, sciences, mathematics, and some practical business courses. The private academy had practically disappeared except in the East where it continued to prepare students for certain eastern colleges.

It should be noted that until this time the secondary schools of America had served the needs of youth and attained their respective objectives fairly well. The needs to be satisfied by the school were simple; the more complex needs of human relationships, home membership, and civic responsibilities were satisfied in the simple home and community life of these times.

Then came the industrial revolution, the growth of big cities, the mechanization of labor, and our complex twentieth-century life. The high school continued to serve fairly adequately its college preparatory function because the college curriculum changed but little. But the curriculum became increasingly obsolete insofar as its other functions were concerned.

Community influences. Educators became alarmed at the in-

[1] *A Cyclopedia of Education,* Vol. II (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1911), pp. 117-119.

effectiveness of the high school curriculum for many of its students, and the tremendous numbers who dropped out of school. Between 1890 and 1930 *more than a dozen national committees produced reports designed to give guidance in revising the curriculum.* For example, the National Educational Association appointed a Committee of Ten in 1892 to study the secondary school curriculum and college entrance requirements. The comittee decided to hold a series of conferences in each of the major subject areas, and as a result of these conferences made recommendations in 1894 designed to strengthen the college preparatory function of the high school.

Several other professional organizations such as the American Historical Association, the National Society for the Study of Education, and various departments of the National Educational Association also *appointed committees from time to time, which in turn issued reports and recommendations for improving the secondary school curriculum.*[2]

Unfortunately, however, most of these committees were dominated by college professors and administrators whose chief interest was the improvement of the product being sent to college. The curriculum for the increasingly swelling enrollments became more and more remote from real needs. Other social and educative agencies — the home, the church, and the community — shifted many of their responsibilities to the school, and a tremendous lag developed between the actual needs of most youth and the typical high school curriculum.

During this period *several efforts were made to improve conditions.* As secondary education was gradually made compulsory, "extra-curricular" activities were introduced, a testing movement got underway, "vocation" education developed, and such subjects as industrial arts, fine arts, music, and physical education made their way into the schools. But still the curriculum lagged. (The development of the curriculum up to *this time* is summarized in Figure A.)

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[2] For a more detailed analysis of the work of some of these committees, see Hugh B. Wood and Howard J. Akers "The Influence of Committees on the Social Studies," *Social Studies*, February, 1951.

Recent developments. During the past 20 years, however, significant strides have been taken in general curriculum improvement. In the first place, national committees gradually became more realistic. While some of their reports were still quite learned, academic, and sometimes unrealistic, the work of these later committees was marked by several distinct trends: (a) they were based more on actual investigation, experimentation, and survey than on "arm-chair philosophizing" as formerly was the case; (b) many included descriptions of newertype programs in operation so that teachers could read and adapt them to their own situations; (c) increasing consideration was given to the 80 per cent of our high school youth who do not go to college; and (d) attempts were made to implement the effectiveness of their reports through committee and organization sponsored conferences, study programs, magazine articles, and other devices.

An analysis of the work of these various groups reflects the liberalization of curriculum thought and action that has taken place during the past 20 years. Some of the more important committees are listed below:

1. The Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education, appointed by the NEA Department of Secondary School Principals in 1932, produced first a statement of ten *Issues of Secondary Education* and then, in 1937, an analysis of ten *Functions of Secondary Education.* The committee implemented its work with study guides, study programs, lectures, courses, and conferences. These pronouncements still provide a good starting point for curriculum improvement by defining the purposes of secondary education.

2. The New York Regents ordered a state-wide survey of education in that state and the committee on the high school phase issued about 1938: *High School and Life, Education for Citizenship, When Youth Leave School,* and *Education for Work.* Because of the thoroughness of the survey, and because it so accurately set the challenge for teachers of the other 48 states, it was read widely. It is still useful as a description of traditional education.

3. The American Youth Commission, appointed by the American Council on Education, considered the inadequacies of American

education for the depression years, 1935-39. Its vocational emphasis is indicated by the titles of some of its studies: *How Fare American Youth?*, *Youth Tell Their Story*, *Matching Youth and Jobs*, *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth*, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*, and *A Program of Action for American Youth.*

4. Special committees of the Society for Curriculum Study (now part of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA) issued a series of reports beginning in 1935: *A Challenge to Secondary Education*, *Integration*, *The Changing Curriculum*, *The Community School*, and *An Evaluation of Modern Education.* These reports introduced realism and practicability in describing some experiences in actual school situations.

5. The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators began its work with a series of nation-wide conferences, followed by a long list of pronouncements beginning in 1937. Some of the most significant included: *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, *Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, *Learning the Ways of Democracy* (a case book describing democratic practices in specific schools), *Education of Free Men in American Democracy*, *What the Schools Should Teach in Wartime*, and *Education for All American Youth.* The last was graphically summarized by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in *Planning for American Youth.* These statements were prepared by some of the distinguished educational leaders of our times, and were supported by the largest and most important professional organizations in America. They were widely read, especially at the leadership level. They were implemented by study guides, study groups, national conferences, lectures, and many other methods.

6. The Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association was one of the most significant undertakings of this period. Thirty high schools worked cooperatively from 1932 to 1940 to develop better curriculums within their respective schools. The report of this program, issued 1942-43, comprises five volumes: *Story of the Eight-Year Study*, *Exploring the Curriculum*, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*, *Did They Succeed in College?*, and *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story.* This study was unique among the others because it was based completely upon actual schools or school systems.

7. The Commission on Secondary School Curriculum of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools issued in 1942 a definition of *General Education in the American High School.* This report included a timely restatement of democratic values to be emphasized in the high school, and descriptions of significant programs in specific schools.

8. Stanford University, with the financial help of the General Education Board, sponsored from 1939 to 1943 a study of social education in the selected schools. Through summer workshops and consultive service, these schools worked together, exchanging ideas and materials, in the development of a core curriculum centering around the area of the social relationships of mankind. The best-known report of this study is *Education for Social Competence.*

9. A committee appointed by Harvard University produced in 1945 one of the more conservative reports, *General Education in a Free Society.* This report sets the goals of secondary education and shows how they may be attained through a subject-centered curriculum.

10. In 1940 the John Dewey Society issued *The American High School,* a report setting the purposes of the school and endorsing the core or common learnings program.

11. The Life Adjustment Education program is an outgrowth of a series of conferences sponsored by the United States Office of Education since 1945. This program is concentrating on the general education needed by 100 per cent of our youth. It is vitally concerned with the neglected group of pupils who drop out or do not attend college. Its major publication is *Life Adjustment Education for All American Youth.*[3]

Many other committees could be mentioned, some of which have performed in equally challenging ways. It is becoming increasingly clear to teachers, however, that the task of improving the educational experiences of boys and girls is largely theirs. There has been considerable thought and action at the top level; we need now to apply this in the classroom.

Some of this application has been evident in such programs

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[3] For a further summary of the work of some of these committees, see Harold Spears, *The High School for Today* (New York: The American Book Company, 1950), pp. 25-44.

2. Some courses have been combined or fused to supplant or supplement existing courses. Illustrations are: American problems, a fusion of sociology, economics, civics, and government; general science, a fusion of biology, physics, and chemistry; English or language arts, a fusion of composition, spelling, penmanship, reading, and literature.

3. Enrollments in foreign languages, especially classical languages, have decreased sharply. A foreign language is no longer considered essential for graduation from high school or even for college entrance in many instances.

4. Enrollments have shown a corresponding increase in vocational studies, such as business education, home economics, agriculture, and industrial education.

5. The quantitative requirements for graduation have increased. Most high school pupils are now enrolled in five or six courses each day rather than in four as formerly. In some instances this has increased the proportion of elective work.

Other changes have taken place in some schools and may be setting the pace for eventual universal acceptance.

6. An experimental philosophy is accepted in many schools. Teachers are encouraged to experiment in the classroom with new methods and techniques, new materials, and new patterns of organization of materials or experiences.

7. Emphasis is being placed on purposeful activity in the classroom. This includes experiences that improve behavior, a more democratic atmosphere, pupil participation in planning and directing their own activities, cooperative evaluation techniques, and bringing the school and community closer together.

8. Several new concepts of the "core" of the curriculum are developing. Most of these imply a closer articulation of materials and experiences of learning; some imply a greater emphasis on learning experiences rather than subject matter.

Some of these practices are illustrated in the next chapter. The contrasts that these trends have brought about in our schools may be seen in Figure B.

Then	*Now*
The curriculum and textbooks were synonymous.	The curriculum comprises the *guided experiences of young people.*
The curriculum was made in advance of the learning situation and was rigid.	The curriculum is planned in broad outline but develops in its specifics with each learning situation — it is flexible.
The curriculum was based on a narrow compartmentalization of knowledge or subject matter.	The curriculum is broad in organization with emphasis on the interrelatedness of experiences, and is concerned with attitudes, appreciations, understandings, skills — all phases of growth and development.
The classroom was dominated by the teacher.	The teacher has a dominant role in bringing out the potentialities of youth, hence may often appear to be in the background
Pupil activities were mostly reading, reciting, drilling, and taking tests — learning was presumed to be passive.	Pupil activities include many cooperative projects, forum discussions, making things, excursions, library searching — are practically unlimited in type and scope — *learning is active.*
Evaluation was based on mastery of subject matter.	Evaluation is based on total growth and development.
Education was limited to the *four walls of the classroom.*	Education is as broad as life — classroom is wherever there are learning opportunities
The curriculum was uniform for all.	The curriculum includes common learnings and many *individualized experiences*

<center>FIGURE B.</center>

The "Core" of the curriculum. What is the meaning of this term? Traditionally, the core of the curriculum referred to the subjects required of all pupils. Today, this is still a common concept, for many states or local school systems require certain courses for graduation.

A second concept assigns an entirely different meaning to the

term. The core is one subject, such as social studies or science or a fusion of social studies and language arts. The new area of learning usually is called social education or social living. Frequently, the core subject is assigned a longer period — two or three hours — than other subjects, and the teacher of this area is frequently responsible for home room and guidance activities.

These two concepts imply that all core experiences are to be found in one or several subjects, and that all of the learnings of this subject or of these subjects are essential for all pupils. They also establish a hierarchy of values among subjects, making some more "respectable" than others. It is doubtful if either of these situations is true.

A third concept defines the core of the curriculum as those experiences in each and every subject that are essential and common for all youth. Thus, we may have certain subjects containing many core experiences and so we require all pupils to take them. Within these subjects, however, there will probably be elective experiences as well as required ones. Some subjects, vocational or avocational in nature, may contain no experiences essential for all youth. The term core thus may be used to differentiate between common and specialized experiences. The common experiences, those essential for all youth, make up what some call the "common learnings" program.

An ideal core. This leads to the question, "Can and should we try to combine all of the core experiences of the high school curriculum into one or two learning areas?" Presumably these would be drawn from the present areas of social studies, language arts, science, mathematics, health, home making, and perhaps others. There would, of course, still be a need for specialized courses in these areas to satisfy individual needs and interests. The core area would provide leads into the more specialized subjects.

One of the major difficulties in the development of a "common learnings" subject is the lack of a teacher education

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[5] For a further description and evaluation of this concept, see Planning for American Youth, National Association of Secondary School Principals, N.E.A. (Washington, D. C. The Association, 1944), 64 p.

program that would develop the necessary competencies to teach it. However, with four or five years at the collegiate level within which to provide such an education, the problem does not seem to be insurmountable if we are willing to discard some of the present subjects in the teacher education program.

The trend toward this concept of the core of the curriculum or a common learnings area is perhaps the most significant movement in education today. It can come only gradually. Each teacher can help, however, by examining his teaching areas and classifying and organizing experiences as common or individual, essential or optional, according to interest.

Furthermore, he can encourage "block scheduling" and experimentation with fusion which leads to the common learnings area. By block scheduling, one teacher is assigned the same group of pupils for two or three consecutive periods for two or three different subjects. He may have, for example, the same 30 or 35 pupils for language arts, social studies, and science, or any two of these subjects. Thus, he is free to experiment with overlapping projects and fusion of experiences and subject matter. He may ignore class bells between periods and thus gain freedom in organization. Certainly, he will come to know his pupils better.

Summary. We are gradually moving away from the traditional, narrow, compartmentalized, subject-centered curriculum to one composed of broad areas or fields, with an emphasis on need-satisfying experiences. We may hope in the future to move continuously towards a curriculum centered around a common learnings area with many elective specialized subjects to enrich each pupil's program.

A CURRICULUM FOR THE TRANSITIONAL PERIOD

What can the beginning teacher expect to find in the average American school today? At best, he can hope that the curriculum is in a transitional stage, moving in the direction of the trends listed above.

In order that he may understand and appraise the total cur-

riculum and make his contribution to its continuous improvement in the system, the following is offered as an example of a curriculum representing a forward position in this transitional period: (Such a curriculum certainly would need to be tailored to meet the size and type of school-community it is intended for.)

1. The social studies, emphasizing experiences that contribute to:

    (a) the development of attitudes that are consistent with the democratic way of life, that encourage respect for the rights of others, a desire for social betterment, and the will to contribute one's share.

    (b) the development of an appreciation of man's cultural heritage and particularly his obligation to utilize it effectively and to advance it; of the process of social progress, and of man's ultimate social and individual potentialities.

    (c) the development of techniques, skills, and abilities that enable man to live happily and successfully and to make his appropriate contribution to society, communication techniques as well as those involved in leadership and followership, the evaluation of propaganda, exercising one's franchise, studying a problem, and the like.

    (d) the development of concepts, generalizations, and understandings that make possible and encourage personal and group thinking, individual and social action.

    (e) the development of habits of study, research, cooperation, industry, social participation, and other forms of behavior conducive to the advancement of civilization.

    (f) the acquisition of specific knowledge, information, facts, and data, basic and concomitant to the development of these attitudes, appreciations, techniques and skills, understandings and concepts, and habits.

Yearly themes for each grade level:

Gr. 7 — The local community and state: its economy, its political and social problems, its history, its improvement; community survey, community study, and community projects.

Gr. 8 — The broader community — our country: its economy, its geography, and historical origins and development, with emphasis on the simple, small-town, agrarian life prior to the twentieth century.

Gr. 9-10 — "One World," a study of typical and significant world cultures today: perhaps one or two ancient and primitive cultures, but major emphasis on European, Asiatic, Latin American, and Canadian culture, beginning with current conditions and problems, leading to historical origins as necessary, and resulting in an understanding of their aesthetic as well as industrial scientific, economic, and political contributions to world welfare.

Gr. 11-12 — Socio-economic-political problems and their American historical antecedents as found for the most part in the period since 1875: a thorough analysis of these problems at the local, national, and world level.

The area of social science may include guidance and homeroom activities. All six years should be required as part of the common learnings area.

2. The sciences, emphasizing experiences that contribute to:

    (a) the development of scientific attitudes toward the solution of problems — e.g., system and order, testing, critical outlook.

    (b) an appreciation of the power of science and the need for its social control in good ends.

    (c) the development of techniques, skills, and abilities necessary for understanding man's relationship to his universe and for his basic performance in scientific matters.

    (d) the development of understandings, concepts, principles, and generalizations needed to profit by mankind's accumulated heritage in science.

(e) the development of habits of scientific living and behavior.

Yearly themes for each grade level:

Gr. 7-9 — General basic science, with emphasis on consumer problems such as forces of nature and how, if harnessed, they help man; community sanitation and personal health; plant, animal, and human growth, development, and reproduction; chemistry of food, fuels, and other household products. Part of the common learnings area, this course should be required of all students.

Gr. 10 — Biology, a specialized course, may be required in lieu of adequate courses in grades 7-9. Emphasis, if part of the core, should be on human behavior and human relations.

Gr. 11-12 — Chemistry and physics, highly specialized, college preparatory, elective courses, based on practical, up-to-date, laboratory experiences.

Gr. 11-12 — Advanced consumer science, for those who need further experiences in practical consumer problems in science with emphasis on the place of science in, and its contribution to, our everyday lives.

3. The arts of expression, with emphasis on the development of effective communication, both socially and aesthetically, in the basic language and in one or more of the supplementary skills. The arts of expression are:

(a) The language arts, including speaking, listening, writing, reading, spelling, composition, and penmanship. Typewriting may be included as a supplementary skill.

(b) Mathematics, the quantitative language.

(c) Arts and crafts, including painting, drawing, sculpturing, leatherworking, metalworking, woodworking, sewing, weaving, puppetry, stage craft, and other fine arts and avocational crafts (e.g., cooking).

(d) Music, both instrumental and vocal.

(e) Foreign languages, with major emphasis on the culture of the people who speak the language, the vo-

cabulary, and functional use of the language. Reading should be emphasized.

Grade Emphases:

Language arts and mathematics should offer general, common experiences in grades 7-9, approaching the basic competency needed for senior high school and adult life. Courses above the 9th grade should be specialized or remedial and may include: journalism, speech, dramatics, literature appreciation, movie and radio appreciation, creative writing, business English, remedial reading, remedial speech, remedial composition, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, remedial mathematics, and finally, consumer mathematics as a capstone to common learnings in mathematics.

Arts, crafts, and music should offer exploratory experiences of a general, common nature as the basis for specialization in skills of the individual's choice. If these exploratory experiences are provided in the elementary curriculum, then specialization may begin in the 7th grade or earlier. These experiences need not parallel each other. For example, a pupil may be highly specialized in painting while exploring the field of music. The offerings in these areas will be conditioned by the demand for them *and the size of the school*, but might include exploratory courses in fine arts, crafts – including industrial arts – and music, appreciation courses in art and music, and specialized courses in painting, free hand drawing, mechanical drawing, advertising and commercial art, photography, metal working, woodworking, band, orchestra, chorus, and perhaps other skills. These subjects should be open to pupils on the basis of ability and proficiency, rather than grade level.

Foreign languages should be offered on an elective basis to the extent of demand. The presence of large ethnic groups in a community might serve as a basis for determining which language to offer. For example, Norwegian might be offered in a community where many Norwegians live, or Spanish in the Southwest. More formal language subjects may be needed in some schools for college pre-professional training. Avocational foreign languages might well begin in the elementary curricu-

lum; formal courses should be delayed until the last year of high school.

The effectiveness of the arts of expression will be enhanced by providing many opportunities for youth to use their skills outside of their formal classes in this area. This can be done through school-wide activities such as plays, operettas, exhibits, recitals, pageants, carnivals, and concerts, and through the utilization of these skills in other classes, such as the use of mathematical formulas in science, graphs in social studies, painting and drawing in most subjects, foreign languages in world cultures, correct English in all classes, and so forth. It is the function of other teachers to encourage boys and girls to practice and use these skills in their everyday experiences and to insist on their correct and effective use.

4. Vocational education, emphasizing the development of pre-vocational and vocational skill and proficiency and the personal-social development essential to holding a job and progressing in it. Vocational education at the secondary level usually includes five areas:

(a) Home Economics, including experiences in the tasks of making a home: cooking, sewing, decorating, home nursing, child care, gardening, home mechanics, personal relations, budgeting, home management, building and keeping a home, and home-making for boys.

(b) Business education, including experiences for the consumer as well as skills needed in business and industry.

(c) Industrial education, providing terminal training for certain industries, preparatory training for those requiring more technical and longer training and for which the demand is too limited to justify equipment and skilled teachers.

(d) Agricultural education, including actual experiences on a farm.

(e) Pre-professional education, including such technical subjects as required for admission to college pre-professional courses, such as advanced mathematics for engineering and technical science for medicine.

Grade Emphases and Subjects: Generally speaking, vocational

education, as such, should not begin before the upper high school grades. It should be noted, however, that many of the avocational experiences in the arts of expression will lead directly into vocational courses.

Home economics: cooking, sewing, home nursing, and general homemaking (perhaps two years), and home economics for boys. These courses should be required of all as potential homemakers.

Business education: typewriting, stenography, general business practice, office practice, bookkeeping, salesmanship and retailing, advertising, commercial law, and office machine operation.

Industrial education: carpentry, painting, auto-mechanics, machine shop methods and specialized trades according to demand.

(d) Agriculture education: crop production, livestock production, poultry raising, marketing, and truck and general farming.

(e) Pre-professional education: technical specialized subjects in science, social studies, and arts of expression.

5. Personal development, emphasizing the physical and mental well-being of the individual. This area includes: physical education, personal and social guidance, which may be provided in the social sciences or separately, and personal hygiene or health, which may be a part of the science program or a separate subject.

Grade emphases:

Physical education, emphasizing group games, muscle and body-building activities, fair play, cooperation, individual sports in upper years, and corrective work whenever needed.

Physical education should be required each year in diminishing degree, perhaps five days per week in the junior high school and two or three days per week in the senior high school.

Personal-social guidance, which includes problems of personality adjustment, selection of a high school program, a college and/or a job, job analysis, and human relationships. Many of these experiences may be fused with social studies in a core

program but a separate unit or a semester's work should be provided at the 9th or 10th grade level to care for the sudden awareness of the problems usually occurring at this time.[6]

Personal hygiene is a special subject for 11th or 12th grade to provide an outlet for a discussion of these problems inasmuch as general science for all has been discontinued at the 9th grade level.

These latter two subjects may be fused and offered in a two-year sequence or they may be fused with the consumer science course and offered as a three-year sequence, two or three days a week to alternate with physical education. These experiences should be a part of the common learnings area and required of all. Again, it must be said that this represents desirable rather than standard practice.

Scheduling the curriculum. The curriculum outlined above may be recognized in some degree in most American high schools. In larger schools most of these subjects are offered each year, but many smaller schools have found it necessary to alternate certain subjects from year to year. Very small schools employing three or four teachers are able to offer a rich curriculum only by combining several subjects under one teacher. For example, a teacher might direct a group of pupils in one room where a few were working on journalism, a few on dramatics, a few on speech, and so on, or a group in specialized fine art media with a few painting, a few sculpturing, a few drawing, etc., or a group in several different phases of a business educa-

FIRST YEAR		SECOND YEAR		THIRD YEAR	
1st Sem.	*2nd Sem.*	*1st Sem.*	*2nd Sem.*	*1st Sem.*	*2nd Sem.*
Journalism	Dramatics	Journalism	Dramatics	Journalism	Dramatics
or	or	or	or	or	or
Rem. Eng.	Literature	Rem. Eng.	Literature	Rem. Eng.	Literature
or	or	or	or	or	or
Bus. Eng.	Other	Speech	Other	Creative	Other
				Writing	

tion course. Another plan provides for the organization of a two or three year course of flexible units based on what in larger

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[6] There are various ways of handling the guidance program. See Chapter 12 for a further discussion of this area.

schools would be separate subjects. For example, practical English for Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors in a 60-pupil six-year high school might be organized as follows, with 30 tenth, eleventh, and twelfth graders in one class with one teacher.

This would require the teacher to divide his time among two or three groups during the week or month, but not necessarily every day because pupils of this age may work independently for long periods of time. It would also require some guidance to provide for both individual needs or shortages and individual talents.

This same type of plan may be applied in other areas such as arts and crafts, music, business education, and industrial education. The capable teacher and school administrator will work out many such ingenious devices for enriching the curriculum of a very small school.

How do the offerings of the transitional school appear from the viewpoint of the pupil? (See Figure C.) In the junior high school years, he will be enrolled in social studies one period, science one period, language arts and mathematics one or two periods depending on need, and physical education one period, to provide common learnings. A six-period day would thus leave one or two periods for elective experiences in the arts of expression. A seven-period day might well be utilized to provide a greater proportion of elective experiences. In a four-year high school plan, some of this elective time in the ninth grade might be diverted to vocational education.

The senior high school pupil will build his common learnings around the social studies for one period, personal development for one period, and a vocational area for one or two periods. In a six-period day he will thus have two or three periods for elective experiences.

It must be emphasized again that this curriculum represents only a pattern. The courses could be taught as a body of knowledge and skills to be acquired, or they can provide the basis for ~~guided experiences through which the youth of today can truly~~ satisfy their many needs. Which result is achieved will depend on the effectiveness of the teacher.

FIGURE C.

The teacher's responsibility in improving the curriculum. The teacher now has a method of operation to guide him in his immediate task. It is to be hoped that he will be called upon and will want to help improve the general curriculum of his school system. He will, of course, be largely responsible for the constant improvement of his classroom work, the functional curriculum. He should also participate in the overall planning of the goals of education and the general curriculum pattern by which the community desires to attain those goals. He should be concerned with such questions as: What are the purposes and goals of education for this community? What are the general and specific needs of youth to be served? Can the school serve all of them? If not, which ones? What philosophy of education should underlie school policies and classroom work? What community and other resources can be utilized in developing *effective learning experiences?*

These and many other questions should be under constant consideration in the modern school. Generally, there will be effective leadership by the administrator to guide the entire staff in professional in-service work, but the lack of such leadership should not deter the teacher from moving ahead on his own front in his own classroom.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. How does one's definition of the term "curriculum" reflect his philosophy of education? What is your definition? Define: pupil's program, subject, course, course of study, and teacher's guide.
2. "The early schools performed their appropriate functions better than schools do today." Explain and evaluate this statement. Be specific with respect to the various types of schools.
3. Let various members of the class summarize the committee reports listed on pages 9 and 10. From these summaries make a list of contrasts and similarities of their several recommendations.
4. Which of the trends listed on pages 13 and 14 and in Figure B characterize the high school that you attended? Have there been significant changes in your high school since you graduated?
5. List what you consider to be the chief advantages and disadvantages of each type of core curriculum.

6. How did the curriculum of your high school days compare with the transitional curriculum described in this chapter?
7. You are presumably preparing to teach one or two subjects in the high school. How does your concept of an ideal program in your area or subject compare with the outline in this chapter?
8. What are some of the curricular advantages of a small school? Disadvantages?
9. What part should the teacher play in determining the curriculum? The administrator? The students?
10. Examine several general courses of study to get an overview of typical curriculums of actual school systems.

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9

The Development of the Curriculum in the Classroom

Hugh B. Wood

One of the teacher's most important responsibilities is to guide the development of the curriculum in the classroom. This necessitates a certain amount of original planning on his part and the adaptation of the plans of others to the immediate classroom situation. The effectiveness of this task will be the major gauge of his success as a teacher.

The teacher will be concerned first with the planning and development of the entire course. Then each part or unit must be considered individually. This chapter describes some ways that good teachers have used to guide the experiences of growth throughout an entire course and through certain units.

PLANNING AND DEVELOPING A SUBJECT

Teachers will usually find much helpful guidance in planning the work of a given subject. There may be a state or local course of study, a teacher's guide, a textbook, a teacher's manual to accompany the textbook, or some similar publication that outlines the work and offers suggestions to the teacher.

The course of study. Some courses of study, usually called

"general" courses of study, include materials for all the subjects of the high school curriculum. Such courses of study ordinarily include introductory emphasis upon lifelong learning. It is anticipated that larger numbers of adults will enroll in night school classes, correspondence courses, and courses dealing with such matters as: characteristics of youth, principles of learning, points of view or philosophy, goals or objectives of education, suggested teaching techniques, ideas for planning and organizing the classroom work, adapting the program to a local situation, a general outline of the total curriculum, and similar materials. A chapter or section is usually devoted to each subject, each course is described briefly, the purposes and content of the courses are outlined, and texts and other reference materials are supplied. Its chief value lies in presenting the total curriculum briefly in a single volume so that each teacher has an opportunity not only to become familiar with the work in all subjects, but also to visualize the pupil's total program. Better coordination and integration of experiences are possible when teachers are familiar with the total program.

The "general" course of study, because it gives a broad view of the total curriculum, cannot provide as much specific help for each teacher as some might desire. This is a limitation to beginning teachers, but often special "subject" courses of study are also available which fill in the detail.

There are many courses prepared for the subject of a single area, such as social studies or industrial arts. These courses of study may supplement the general course of study and usually are much more detailed. They usually include such materials as an introduction, perhaps a statement of philosophy, specific subject goals or objectives, an outline of the work to be included in the subject or area, suggested pupil activities, sources of materials, suggestions for evaluating pupils' work, and other similar materials. Usually this type of course of study is organized into units, and details are given for each unit to be taught. Such a course of study has the obvious advantage, especially for the beginning teacher, of offering specific and more or less complete suggestions for teaching the subject or area. On the

other hand it does not give as complete a picture of the total curriculum as the "*general*" type of course of study. Because of this, some teachers may be unfamiliar with other phases of the curriculum and fail to relate their special areas to the total program.

Any course of study, however, may become a "crutch" for the indolent teacher. Extensive detail is helpful for the inexperienced teacher and the busy teacher may also come to rely on it. As the teacher gains the confidence that comes from experience, he should lean less and less on a detailed course of study and more and more on his imagination and his own initiative. Unless he does this, he may become a slave to the course of study.

The teacher's guide. During the early part of the century, courses of study were quite rigid and specific in their requirements. Although this became less true after 1930, some curriculum committees believe that the teacher should have freedom to develop the subject, and that courses of study, even of the type now being produced, are too prescriptive. Accordingly, they have produced what are usually called teachers' guides. These guides may include the entire curriculum or a single subject or area. They tend to avoid specific suggestions; rather they offer many ideas from which the teacher may choose the one best adapted to his needs. They usually include an introduction, a statement of philosophy, perhaps a discussion of pupil characteristics, general goals, many suggestions for activities and materials (more than can be used in any one class, thus forcing a choice), a suggested list of units from which the teacher and pupils may choose, suggestions for evaluating pupils' work, and similar materials. Although the content of these guides may appear similar to that of courses of study, there is usually much more flexibility and more choice left to the teacher and pupils in the guides than in courses of study. This has advantages for the experienced or imaginative teacher, but may be confusing to the beginning teacher.

The teacher's guide type of aid attempts to demonstrate a more democratic approach to curriculum planning than the traditional course of study. It assumes that there will be some

pupil participation in planning the course, and flexibility in the selection of specific units to be studied. Teacher's guides may be quite general and sketchy or they may go into extensive detail.

Frequently the teacher's guide is supplemented by individual resource units which contain extensive suggestions for developing the details of each unit. These units include the objectives, an outline of the subject contents, suggested activities (usually more than can be used with a single class), materials of all types (books, films, recordings, etc.), and other suggestions for planning and teaching the unit. The availability or lack of resource units often effects the organization of the course. The busy or inexperienced teacher may be tempted to include only those topics for which resource units are available and omit other equally important aspects of the course.

Administrators differ in their acceptance of the newer type of teacher's guide. Some want their teachers — especially beginning teachers — to follow a definite prescription such as the earlier type of course of study. Others are quite willing for their teachers to use the less formal guide and supplement it with their own imagination and the suggestions of their pupils, especially if the teachers have been well-trained.

The textbook. If no course of study or teacher's guide is available, the teacher may wish to follow the outline of a good textbook. Such a textbook may be prescribed by the state department of education or the local school authorities, or it may be one of the teacher's own choosing. Many of the better textbooks today include suggested pupil activities and other aids at the end of each chapter. These may include an outline of the chapter, questions on the content of the chapter, lists of significant dates, persons, or events, vocabulary lists, exercises, experiments, problems, references for further reading, and other study and summarizing materials that offer suggestions to both the teacher and the pupils.

It is generally agreed that textbooks are likely to be more satisfactory if they are selected by committees of teachers rather than prescribed by state adoption. However, most states that

of experience, and similar factors may tempt the beginner to follow a textbook or a course of study rigidly and without any modifications to meet local needs and interests. This practice may help the teacher get over the first rough spots, but it certainly should not be continued.

The preliminary planning of each subject by the teacher should include:

1. An examination of all of the printed guides, courses of study, and manuals available.
2. An examination of all of the source materials available: textbooks, reference books, pamphlets, audio-visual materials, and other pupil materials.
3. A consideration of the purposes of the subject in general and for the specific community, in terms of the actual needs and interests of the boys and girls for whom the course is being planned.
4. A tentative selection of units and time allotment for each subject.
5. The adaptation of the printed aids or the outlining of the subject, on a tentative basis, to fit the situation.

Pupil participation in planning. Pupils will learn much more readily and with greater facility if they are aware of their goals and if they feel that they have had a share in planning their educational experiences. They frequently can make intelligent suggestions regarding the development of their experiences if given an opportunity. Furthermore, since one of the ultimate goals of education is to develop in each learner the ability to plan cooperatively with others and for himself, we need guided planning experiences to develop this ability.

Therefore, the teacher may well devote the first few days of the term to planning activities in which members of the class participate. How this was done in one instance is described below. *The beginning teacher should realize that perfection in this procedure cannot be expected without considerable experience on the part of both the teacher and the members of the class.*

The teacher of a tenth grade class in language arts opened the first meeting of the class by saying that most of the pupils had

spent nine years learning to read, write, speak, and listen; that some had had more success than others; that most of them could use some skills better than other skills; and that the pupils know, or could find, perhaps better than she could what they needed to concentrate on during the ensuing year. This led to a discussion of the things that pupils could expect to get out of language arts — the objectives, and the ways in which these learnings could take place — activities and experiences. The period closed with the suggestion that each pupil for the next day make a list of his own strengths and weaknesses in communication, a list of things he would like to get out of the subject, and some ways in which he might accomplish these goals.

The next day the teacher asked one of the girls to write in two parallel columns on the blackboard the strengths and weaknesses of the class as each pupil read his list. It was noted that both lists were similar, that strengths for some pupils were weaknesses for others, and that weaknesses for some were strengths for others. This suggested the possibilities for cooperative help from each other. There was some uncertainty for some pupils about their strengths, however, so the teacher suggested a scientific analysis in the form of a diagnostic test to discover both strengths and weaknesses accurately for each pupil. It was pointed out that a similar test could be used later to see how much improvement had been made. Quite naturally, one pupil wanted to know if the test grade would be part of the grade for the first six weeks. The teacher referred this question back to the class and the group decided that the test scores should be recorded to show how much had been achieved in nine years, but that the amount of progress was the important thing and should be the basis of grading.

This discussion diverted the group from its major concern of the moment, but opened the way for an intelligent analysis of pupil evaluation, grades, marking, and report cards. Pupils were asked to write for the next day what they thought about tests, grades, and report cards. Some of these were read the next day, but since it was difficult to list all of the ideas on the blackboard, three pupils volunteered to read all of the papers

and to report a summary to the class at a later date. They later
suggested a diagnostic report card for language arts showing
progress on each objective. They also suggested that pupils
keep their own record of progress and help evaluate their own
work. The contrasts between the attitudes thus developed and
those usually found regarding testing and grading were quite
marked.

With the matter of evaluation thus disposed of, temporarily
at least, the class returned to a discussion of strengths and weak-
nesses. A date for the test was set and the group agreed that
the pupils should pair off, each one selecting a partner having
opposite abilities. Also, the teacher suggested that as they
began to work on some small group projects at a later date, they
might wish to choose group members in terms of abilities and
inadequacies in order to help each other. Considerable progress
had been made in removing the stigma of low test scores and
inadequacies when it was realized that most people have com-
pensating abilities.

The fourth day was devoted to a listing and discussion of
objectives to be accomplished. One pupil said that he needed
to get up before the class more; the teacher suggested that he
work at the blackboard as a start while he continued to lead
the discussion. The teacher added that he and others should
plan to take over the role of chairman at a later date. At this
point class organization was discussed and planned. It was
decided to elect a general chairman and a secretary after the
planning period was completed and after the students had had
a chance to know each other better. These officers were to be
elected several times during the year so that many students
would have experience in leadership of some kind during the
year.

The goals listed on the blackboard included: ability to speak
before a group, to lead a group, to read better, to listen, to write
letters and other papers, to spell, to write legibly, to write in
good English, to work with others in a group; opportunities to
read good stories and other literature, to attend movies and dis-
cuss them, to listen to radio programs and discuss them; and

many other objectives related to conversation and writing. The teacher was careful to leave the objectives stated in the student's terms and to suggest better wording only when it was acceptable to the group and within their comprehension. The list finally resulted in over 40 items which were organized under several major headings; later these were used on the diagnostic report card.

The time during the second week was used to list some proposed activities and to organize these into a plan for the year's work. Major units were laid out and tentative dates set for their completion. Another day was given to class organization and the report from the evaluation committee. The group was now ready to begin its year's work with enthusiasm. English 10 was well under way.

The advantages of such an approach to a year's work are several. The teacher has a chance to get acquainted with her students quickly and they learned something about each other. Boys and girls thus gain a feeling of "belongingness" to a group. They tend to feel that the class is "theirs." What they do will be a part of them; if their experiences are unsatisfactory they can blame themselves and take the responsibility for correcting matters. They know where they are planning to go and they work with enthusiasm because they have chosen the road. They have gained experience in group work, in leadership, and in assuming responsibility. The resulting plans probably will not vary greatly from those of the teacher, but if they do, they may be better. Of course, the teacher has the right and obligation to suggest areas or experiences when the students, with their limited experience, fail to develop a well-rounded plan.

The concept and practice of student participation in planning and helping to direct their own activities requires skill and patience in execution, but it pays dividends in achieving modern educational goals. The practice should continue throughout the year, through each unit, and in the development of each type of activity, drill as well as the more creative type. At its best, it might culminate in a week or ten days of summary and review of the year's work. It should certainly result in a greater amount

of "active" learning and less "passive" acceptance of the teacher as the single source of all direction, knowledge, and action.

Other planning activities. Many learning resources must be planned well in advance of the date of use. Films and other audio-visual aids must be ordered, pamphlets and other reference materials must be on hand, resource visitors must be interviewed and prepared with outlines and suggestion topics. The teacher must make certain that learning resources are available and suitable for every situation that can be anticipated. The librarian, the supervisor, the requisition clerk, the administrator, and the students all have an important part to play in their task.

Cooperation is the key-note to the planning and the development of each subject in the curriculum. Manuals, guides, and textbooks; pupils; teacher, and staff; definite, long-range, day-by-day planning with good balance and reasonable flexibility—all must blend together to create the ideal learning situation.

PLANNING AND DEVELOPING A UNIT[1]

Each subject is normally divided into major parts or units to facilitate the organization and evaluation of learning experiences. Each unit should be a coherent part of the whole course and related to the other units of the course. As each course is part of the total educational program, each unit is part of the course and each experience is part of a unit. All are interrelated. Each unit should provide a convenient point in the course at which to pause and summarize, evaluate, and reorganize the experiences and learnings of the previous few weeks.

Usually units average from four to seven weeks in length, but may be as short as a week or as long as a semester, depending on the subject and the topic being studied.

The use of unit organization. Certain skill subjects, such as mathematics, arts, music, and typewriting, may be organized systematically around basic skills rather than units. Learning to use a saw in industrial arts is a basic skill, not a unit in the

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[1] Much of the material in this section is based on: Hugh B. Wood, *Planning and Teaching Curriculum Units.* Curriculum Bulletin. Eugene: University of Oregon, 1950, 20 p.

usual sense, and it will be developed through a series of "projects" or experiences requiring the use of the saw. The industrial arts course of study may, however, include some classroom research on the lumbering industry which might well be organized as a unit. Similarly, a crafts course may include a study of fabrics suitable for upholstery. A music appreciation class may well include a study of church music, or the music of Spain or Italy, or the music of Beethoven. Each group of these experiences could be organized as a unit. But music experience involving the development of specific skills, such as band, orchestra, and choral work, are usually not organized as units.

On the other hand, when we combine several skills and apply them to such activities as writing a letter, preparing for and presenting an operetta, or developing a sound insurance and investment program, the result resembles a unit. Thus, the term unit may be used correctly to describe the major divisions of subjects involving considerable content (ideas, concepts, understanding, attitudes), or the content divisions of skill subjects, but the term is a misnomer when applied to a specific or isolated skill.

Types of units. The term "unit" was introduced during the 1920's by the proponents of the activity movement. Reference was made to activity units, experience units, interest units, and the like, in order to convey the philosophy of the activity school. An activity unit was one organized around activities or projects, often mostly physical in nature. Examples of such activities were setting a hen and raising chicks, building a play store, and planting a tree. An experience unit was one based on experiences, and differed very little from the activity unit. The experiences were supposed to be of the children's own choice, but frequently were skillfully suggested by the teacher to give the children the impression of self choice. Interest units were developed around the interests of children. Some teachers claimed that interest units could not be planned in advance because the interests were not known until the teaching-learning situation began. Others believed that interests could be anticipated and thus units could be planned around these interests.

Some of the more conservative teachers of this period, unable to accept some of the ideas of this school of thought, referred to units of work, subject matter units, study units, research units, and the like. A unit of work was based on study and work in contrast to the "play" activities of the activity or experience units. This unit emphasized textbook assignments, workbook exercises, recitation, and testing. Subject matter units centered on the subject matter of the textbook, and learning emphasized factual data and knowledge. Study units also consisted of organized subject matter and emphasized the traditional type of study. Research units were similar, emphasizing subject matter, but usually involved the use of reference books and often several textbooks. Some research units were based on a series of problems or questions. All of these units emphasized subject matter and factual data in contrast to group activities stressing the development of desirable behavior.

Today, many of these terms are still in use, and many of the same practices are represented by different terms. One cannot really determine the underlying philosophy of a unit by the descriptive term applied to it. For this reason, the term "unit" alone is perhaps the best term to use.

There is, however, a different type of distinction that should be recognized in unit terminology. This applies to the function of the material that is developed to facilitate the teaching of units. First, there is the "unit plan" which is the teacher's, or teacher-pupils' plan of action for the unit. It contains specific suggestions relative to purposes or objectives, content, pupil activities, and materials. Second, there is the "unit log" which is a developmental description of the unit in the classroom, used chiefly to show other teachers how a unit actually developed in the classroom. This reveals the execution of the "unit plan" and is usually interpretive as well as descriptive. Third, there is the "unit file" which consists of a collection of ephemeral materials — pamphlets, maps, pictures, and bibliographies — that are usually best filed in a standard 9" x 12" file drawer. The completeness of this file will depend on the topic, availability of materials, and the ability of the compiler to locate the materials. These

materials become available to the pupils as well as the teacher as the unit is begun. Finally, there is the "source unit," sometimes called a "resource unit," although this latter term is occasionally applied to the "unit plan," too. The source unit is similar to the textbook in that it provides the pupils with actual reading material, especially in areas where suitable textbooks are lacking. Several publishing companies have printed extensive series of "source units" [2] and many of the larger school systems have mimeographed source units from time to time. Especially outstanding are those published by the Long Beach, California, Public Schools.

Illustration of the unit plan. The first step for the beginning teacher after the subject has been planned in general terms is to prepare a unit plan for the several units of the subject. Existing unit plans may be utilized and adapted, but seldom will any be found that fit the new situation exactly. The unit plan may vary in length, organization, and detail according to the experience of the teacher, the subject, the amount of pupil participation to be expected, and the amount of time available.

One typical science unit plan includes a statement of philosophy; the place of the unit in the total science program; the scope of the unit; desired outcomes, such as personal traits, intellectual traits, social traits, basic skills, major understandings, attitudes and appreciations, and interests; suggested approaches through observation trips, guest speakers, motion pictures, laboratory projects, graphic aids, and interest in reading; suggested activities such as research and experimental activities, excursions, construction activities, appreciative and creative activities, reporting and discussion activities; culminating activities;

[2] For example: the "unit-text" series published by Row, Peterson and Company; the "Modern Wonder Books" published by the American Education Press; the "Public Affairs Pamphlets" published by the Silver Burdett Company, the "Public Policy Pamphlets" published by the University of Chicago Press. "Building America" units now distributed by Encyclopedia Britannica Corporation; John Day pamphlets published by the John Day Company; the "Life Adjustment Booklets" published by Science Research Associates, the "Problems in American Life" series published by the National Council for Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

materials to be used, including references for the teacher, general texts, supplementary references for students, free and inexpensive materials, visual aids, magazines, and construction materials and equipment; and a description of how the unit developed in the classroom.[3]

The outline of a social studies unit plan offers another illustration of good unit planning:

INSTALLMENT BUYING
A Unit in Modern Problems

I. Origin of the unit; point of view

II. Criteria for selecting problems

III. Objectives of the unit

IV. The teacher's preparation: an overview
    A. Purpose of the unit
    B. Definition of installment buying
    C. History of installment buying
    D. Application of consumer credit
    E. Description of installment buying practice
    F. Areas of application of installment credit
    G. Practices in installment buying and selling
    H. The growth of new forms of credit institutions
    I. The extent of installment buying
    J. Economic and social effects of installment buying
    K. Some abuses of the installment plan

V. The approach to the unit
    A. Purpose of the unit set up by pupils
    B. Planning the unit

VI. Organizing the work of the unit

VII. Activities to be engaged in by the pupils

VIII. Presenting the reports

IX. Evaluation of the pupils' work

X. Pupils' and teacher's bibliography [4]

[3] Stanley E. Williamson, *Interdependence in Plant and Animal Life*, Curriculum Bulletin, (Eugene: University of Oregon, 1950), 28 pp.

[4] Based on a unit developed by Hugh B. Wood, William J. Lowry and Irwin A. Hammer. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 27 p.

How the unit develops in the classroom. How does such a plan look in action? Of course, there must be modifications as the teacher meets his pupils, learns of their differences in interests and abilities, and enlists their aid in planning their own activities. Perhaps the easiest way to get an overview of the development of a unit is to provide a description of the unit on *installment buying* which was outlined above.

One of the problems which grew out of a brief orientation and organization period in an eleventh grade Modern Problems class was installment buying and selling. The teacher, believing in the value of student participation in the planning and organization of curriculum materials, gave the class an opportunity to help determine the areas for exploration and study during the year. Each member was invited to state his own interests and felt needs and to offer suggestions relative to the methods of procedure.

So many suggestions were offered that the group was at once confronted with the problem of selecting only certain areas for further exploration and study, and of allotting tentatively a specified amount of time to each selected area, providing of course, for the necessary flexibility as conditions might later require. In response to the question of what problems should be selected for inclusion, it was suggested that certain criteria be set up to determine the selection.

On the basis of these criteria the problem of installment buying and selling was admitted to the agenda for the year, and four weeks were tentatively allotted to it. It was decided to study this particular problem at approximately the same time that the purchasing of homes and furnishings would be studied in home economics. The unit was also to be correlated with mathematics.

By the time the class was ready to start exploring this area, several questions which were obviously related to the problem of installment buying had been raised in previous units. These had been listed by the class secretary at the time they were presented.

Various students expressed opinions regarding these ques-

tions; others remained quiet. Toward the end of the first meeting one student remarked that although the opinions expressed had been enlightening as opinions, they disclosed the inability of the contributors to substantiate their assertions with facts and adequate documentation. It was decided to withhold further discussion of these questions until more definite information was forthcoming.

The question was then raised as to the real purpose of the unit. On former units the student and the teacher had cooperatively set up definite aims or objectives so that direction would not be lacking and a proper perspective of the problem could be maintained. After analyzing the various suggestions offered by the individual members, the group set up tentative objectives.

With a view to definite planning, each student was asked to prepare for the next day a list of different types of installment buying and selling and to get some opinions on its values and shortcomings from their parents, friends, merchants, bankers, and others with whom they came in contact. Illustrations of unfair practices were to be sought. One girl said that she had read a novel, the bookjacket and review of which had been on the bulletin board for several days, which told the story of some people whose lives had been spoiled because they had become victims of the installment system. She promised to give a short review of the book the next day.

After the book review had been presented and discussed the following day, the remainder of the time was devoted to the organization of an outline of some of the major aspects of the problem.

It was agreed that the "committee" technique of research would be used for this problem because of the lack of organized material. Questions were raised to guide the development of each phase of the problem and an outline was arranged.

The class was divided into committees which selected for research the various phases of the problem according to their individual interests. It was decided that each group should prepare a tentative report, present it to the class, and then, after criticisms and suggestions had been received, should draft

a final report. Inasmuch as there was no single reference in the school library which adequately treated this problem in a manner suitable for high school pupils, the class decided to have these reports typed and bound by the commercial department and placed in the library for future use.

During the next few days there were no formal class meetings. Brief discussions were held occasionally to assist the committees in keeping a proper perspective and to help them with different problems which they encountered. Many of the references listed in the bibliography were made available and pupils utilized library indexes to supplement their materials and to find more recent references.

One class meeting was given over to a talk by the manager of the neighborhood bank who had an extensive knowledge of the problem and its effects on social and economic life. After he had finished his talk, many questions were asked which had evolved from several days of intensive research by the different committees. The questions were answered with clarity and understanding and in many cases served to re-direct the thinking of certain individuals.

One committee had agreed to arrange its work in order that its preliminary report could be presented at an early date. On the day promised, the committee chairman took charge of the meeting and read the report. A lively discussion followed in which nearly all pupils participated. The committee was requested from time to time to justify its findings and many constructive criticisms were given which helped not only the committee reporting but those who reported subsequently. On the basis of the discussion the first committee was instructed to revise its report according to suggestions given and to prepare a second draft for approval.

During the course of the next few days, each committee reported and was directed to make certain changes, additions, deletions, and so on, and to prepare new drafts for final approval. After all the reports had been given, a summary of the findings, conclusions, and implications of the various committees was organized by the entire group. Summary statements were

written on the blackboard and then copied by the class secretary. The remainder of the task was turned over to the several committee chairmen who approved and edited the report and sent it to the commercial department to be typed and bound.

After the completion of the unit, the teacher entered in each pupil's permanent record an account of the work done by that pupil.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. List the aids to planning classroom work that are available to most teachers? How should each be used? How would you rate them in value?
2. Why is it usually unsatisfactory merely to follow the textbook in planning and developing the classroom work? The course of study?
3. Make a list of the criteria that should guide the planning of classroom work.
4. Make a list of the steps that should be taken in planning classroom work.
5. To what extent can students actually share in planning classroom work? Should this be guided towards the pre-conceived goals of the teacher, or should the free ideas of the students dominate?
6. Criticize day by day the illustration of student-shared planning on pages 7-11.
7. Do the same for the illustration on pages 18-22.
8. Describe the unit concept of curriculum organization. Why are skills organized differently than content materials.
9. List the different types of units and explain the use to he made of each.
10. Examine a teaching unit for a specific classroom with which you are familiar. A resource unit. A unit log. A unit file.

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10

Extracurricular Activities:
Some Principles of Management

J. Lloyd Trump

Special emphasis during recent decades upon adapting secondary schools to the needs of youth has resulted in the development of school activities. Such terms as clubs, debates, dramatics, assembly programs, variety shows, school publications, interscholastic and intramural athletics, student participation in government, glee clubs, band, orchestra, parties, dances, banquets, and many others, have become a part of the vocabulary of students, teachers, and the public generally. Educators have called these events and programs extracurricular, allied, co-curricular, extra-class, semi-curricular, and class-related activities, to mention the more commonly applied terms.

Extracurricular defined. To define accurately the meaning of the term extracurricular, the one most frequently applied to the foregoing types of activities, has always been difficult. Sometimes extracurricular activities have been viewed as those in which students participate without receiving credit towards graduation. This definition draws a sharper line between the curriculum and the extracurriculum than many persons would approve. As a matter of fact, there has been a significant trend

in the direction of giving credit for many activities, thus making them curricular rather than extracurricular.[1] Similarly, it is difficult to draw distinctions on the basis of what occurs. Although there is likely to be more pupil activity, pupil planning, voluntary participation, emphasis on social goals, and pupil evaluation of results in extracurricular than in curricular activities, those emphases are regarded by most persons as desirable for all phases of the school program.

Whether credit towards graduation is provided or not, school workers should be interested in all of the experiences of youth whether in an algebra class, on the playground, during summer vacation, in the YMCA or settlement house, or on the job. For the purposes of discussion in this and the following chapter, extracurricular activities will include athletic, class organization, club, commencement, contest, homeroom, honorary, music, publication, social, speech, student participation in control, *tour*, and *out-of-school experience activities*.

History of Extracurricular Activities

Early beginnings. Although organized extracurricular activities in American secondary schools are largely the product of the twentieth century, isolated examples can be found a century earlier. Jones[2] reports that although a few activities were well-established in schools shortly after 1870, the vast majority were started after 1900. The greatest development came during the period following World War I, and especially since 1920.

Prior to 1900, activities were regarded by school officials as dangers to the educational program, and efforts were made to suppress them. Coaching or sponsoring activities were not considered a fit activity for teachers. Boys were expelled for playing football. Learning was a full-time occupation not to be interfered with by irrelevant pastimes. Activities were largely ignored.

[1] Galen Jones, *Extra-curricular Activities in Relation to the Curriculum*, pp. 24-32. Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 607. (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935).

[2] Galen Jones, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-19.

From about 1900 to the time of World I, activities came to be accepted by school officials as a sort of necessary evil. During this period coaches and sponsors frequently were not full-time, resident members of the faculty although employed and paid by school boards. Educational qualifications were not regarded as highly significant. Facilities provided for activities were relatively inadequate in most cases. Activities were merely tolerated.

Developments since 1920. The influences of World War I, the decade following, and the effects of the depression years were partly responsible for the acceptance of extracurricular activities as an integral phase of the educational program during the period since 1920. The attention to child study, growth in appreciation of social goals in education, increases in enrollment, declines in the employment of youth, and the development of movies, radio, and other forms of entertainment all had some influence on the rapid evolution of programs of extracurricular activities. Studies were made, speeches given, articles written, buildings constructed and remodeled, sponsor qualifications established, public relations programs inaugurated; school officials boasted about their programs of extracurricular activities. As a matter of fact, one of the concerns during World War II was how to keep activities going in spite of the difficulties of travel, shortages, and limitations on time of students and teachers imposed by the war effort. Today activities are accepted and fostered as an essential part of the educational program.

Present Status of Extracurricular Activities

Much confusion exists at the present time with respect to the role of extracurricular activities in secondary education. The fact that activities have found their way into the program largely as the result of insistence of students, teachers, and community groups, with a minimum of centralized direction, has resulted in wide variations with respect to ways in which the program is managed in different schools.

Unsolved problems. It would be difficult today to imagine a typical program of extracurricular activities. Although most school workers and communities accept activities as an integral part of the educational program, the practices of many schools show significant differences of opinion with respect to the exact status of activities. A few questions may be cited to show possible differences of opinion. How should new activities find their way into the program? Should some activities be compulsory and others elective? When should activities be scheduled? Should sponsors be paid extra for duties in connection with extracurricular activities? What qualifications should sponsors possess? What limits should be placed upon interscholastic competition? Should the public be encouraged to attend extracurricular presentations more than curricular ones? How much *responsibility for policy development and administration should be given to students?* How should the program be financed? Oo what basis and in what manner should the extracurricular program be evaluated? These and many other questions must be answered very specifically by all groups responsible for the development of secondary education. The ways in which these questions are answered in a given community determines the *role of activities in a particular secondary school.*

VALUES IN EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Many writers have proposed possible values which may accrue to students participating in extracurricular activities. The earliest comprehensive compilation of these values was made by Koos, covering the period prior to 1925.[3] Values most frequently mentioned were training in some civic-social-moral relationship, recognition of adolescent nature, socialization, training for leadership, improved discipline and school spirit, training for social cooperation, actual experience in group life, training for citizenship in a democracy, training for ethical living, and health. More recently, Strang[4] has classified the values in group activi-

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[3] Leonard V. Koos, (Chairman), *Extra-curricular Activities,* Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), p. 11.

[4] Ruth Strang, *Group Activities in College and Secondary School,* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941), pp. 14-29.

ties into four principal categories: *Developmental* (satisfaction of basic needs, social aspects, emotional aspects, values and attitudes, vocational values, aesthetic values, knowledge and skills); *Diagnostic* (provide opportunities for studying individuals, and for individual self-diagnosis); *Therapeutic* (work out relations with others, develop new habit patterns, develop self-reliance, make students aware of problems); *Group* (develop group morale or spirit, arrive at solutions to school problems).

Value to students. That participation in extracurricular activities more than in routine classroom affairs produces wholesome and attractive personalities was the conclusion of Shannon[5] in summarizing recent research. He describes, for example, the experiences of Sidney K. Smith, a psychiatrist at the University of California, who reported that of the first 300 men who came or were referred to him for psychiatric attention, 199, or almost two-thirds, were not engaged in any campus activity.

The attainments rated highest by 3,525 secondary school students in a recent study[6] were as follows: developed new friendships, became more interested in school, learned how to win and lose in a sportsmanlike manner, developed a greater loyalty to the school, discovered worth-while things to do in leisure time, developed more friendly relations with teachers, became willing to accept criticisms from others, and gained valuable information that would not have been received in a regular course. In the same study, alumni, parents, and teachers ascribed similar values to activity participation.

Personal satisfaction. That participation in extracurricular activities is highly regarded by high school students as a means of personal satisfaction was revealed in a study recently conducted by Pogue[7] in selected Illinois high schools. Each of 6,817 students was asked to rate the following six types of activities

[5] J. R. Shannon, "School Activities and Personality Development," *School Activities,* XX, No. 9 (May, 1949), pp. 275-277.

[6] J. Lloyd Trump, *High School Extra-curriculum Activities,* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944), pp. 112-113.

[7] Earl Graham Pogue, *Participation in Extra-Class Activities As Related to Socio-Economic Classification,* (Urbana: University of Illinois, unpublished D. Ed. thesis, 1949), pp. 47-52.

in order of personal satisfaction: extra-class activities, school subjects, activities centering around the home, activities centering around non-commercial service agencies (such as the church, Y.M.C.A., and the like), activities centering around commercial agencies, and unplanned peer group activities. The resultant data shown in Table I indicate that students in these Illinois schools uniformly ranked extracurricular activities above regular school subjects in terms of personal satisfaction. As a matter of fact, participation in extracurricular activities ranked second only to commercial activities when data from all of the 13 schools are considered, outranking even commercial activities in five instances.

TABLE I

Rank Order of Satisfaction of Various Types of Activities
As Determined By the Mean of Ratings By the Pupils [a]

						School							
Activity	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
Extra-class	1	1	1	4	1	2	3	1	2	3	2	5	5
School Subjects	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Home	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	1
Non-commercial	4	4	4.5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	3
Commercial	2	2	3	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2
Unplanned	5	5	4.5	2	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	3	4

Code: 1 = greatest satisfaction; 6 = least satisfaction

The foregoing evidence, only representative of the many studies that have been made, points vividly to the potential values in participation in extracurricular activities. Whether or not these values are realized depends to no small degree upon how the program is managed. The remaining portion of this

[a] Earl Graham Pogue, *Participation in Extra-Class Activities As Related to Socio-Economic Classification,* (Urbana: University of Illinois, unpublished D. Ed. thesis, 1949), pp. 47-52.

chapter is devoted to a discussion of some guiding principles of management for extracurricular activities. The principles are classified under the following headings: nature of the extracurricular activities program; interscholastic contests, student participation, sponsorship of activities, administration and supervision, financial support, and evaluation.

NATURE OF THE EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES PROGRAM

In considering the nature of the program of activities presented in a given school, attention needs to be given to the purposes of activities, balance in the offering, ways in which new activities are started and existing ones continued or abandoned, time and place of meetings, and types of programs carried on by the different organizations.

The aims of different activities should be clearly defined so that evaluations may be made in relation to the accomplishment of the stated purposes.[*]

The purposes of activities should be defined in terms of anticipated changes in the individual and group behavior of participants.

Whenever pertinent, these behavior changes should be described for the leaders of the activity, for those who are active participants, and for those who are spectators. For example, in holding a school dance, what is supposed to happen, in terms of changed behavior, to the chairmen, to those who serve on committees, and to those who attend? Unless these aims are clearly defined in terms of individual or group behavior, it will be impossible to evaluate the contributions of given activities or to evaluate the total program.

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[*] This principle of management, as well as many others enumerated in this chapter, is adapted from those proposed by J. Lloyd Trump, *High School Extracurricular Activities* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944), pp. 18-41.

The principles proposed by Trump were derived from a study of the literature concerned with extracurricular activities. Those finally selected came largely from the writings of authors who have done productive writing in the field of activities and have, accordingly, achieved authoritative status in the field. The specific sources from which the different principles were derived are shown in the volume by Trump noted in the preceding paragraph.

The program of activities should be characterized by vertical and horizontal balance in offerings.

Horizontal balance in the program implies the necessity for providing a broad variety of activities in such a manner as to keep any one activity from overshadowing others in importance. Vertical balance implies the necessity for providing similar activities for students of varied interests and abilities.

A school violates the principle of horizontal balance when one activity or a certain type of activity is given unusual support in terms of finance, building and other facilities, salary paid the sponsor, lightened teaching load of the sponsor, and the like. Schools have been known, for example, to provide the foregoing types of support to an unusual degree for basketball, band, dramatics, or almost any phase of the program. Studies should be made in the school not only to see whether there are certain areas not included in the program but also to balance the program if one or more types of activity receive unusual support.

Activities for students having less ability or undeveloped interest should also be provided. The tendency is for schools to provide activities mainly for those students who already possess certain abilities or interests to a high degree. The principle of vertical balance is violated when a school offers a given activity on a selective basis and does not provide a similar activity for those who do not possess sufficient ability to participate in the selective activity. For example, if a school has a dramatics club to which students are elected on the basis of try-outs, the school should also provide a dramatics club for those who do not have sufficient ability to be selected for the advanced club. Moreover, the beginning group should have access to similar, if not equal, coaching, equipment, financial support, opportunities for public appearances, and the like.

A school is justified in selecting a few of the more talented boys for a varsity basketball team, but it should also provide competition for those of lesser ability. A school sponsor is justified in selecting the most talented students for a glee club or choir, but *there is also an obligation to provide for those of lesser ability with adequate facilities, instruction, and financial sup-*

port, so that they too may enjoy the values inherent in singing.

Procedures for the inauguration of new activities should be characterized by definiteness in responsibility, ease of operation, and sensitiveness to student wishes.

All of the persons connected with a school ought to know exactly how a new activity can be started. One method of achieving this result is to have responsibility for chartering new activities vested with the student council. Whenever a given number of students, six or eight, for example, wish to start a new activity, they would petition the student council for a charter. Before such a charter is granted, the students should be required to show very specifically the purposes of the activity, time and place of meeting, persons eligible for participation, facilities required in terms of building, supplies, and equipment, sources of financial support, and the name of the proposed faculty sponsor.

Such a petition must bear the approval of the principal or the director of extracurricular activities as an indication that sponsor time is available and other arrangements are satisfactory. The student council would be expected to assist the petitioning group in complying with the foregoing requirements and issue a charter when the conditions have been met. Faculty, students, and the administration of the school should join in devising the procedures. The student council should publicize the procedures from time to time so that all may be familiar with them.

Participants should be asked at the end of the season or year for recommendations relative to continuation of each activity.

Unless participants are asked for recommendations, activities may be continued year after year mainly because of the wishes of some sponsor; on the other hand, an activity may be discontinued even though there is much interest on the part of students. Changes in procedures or program may seem warranted in the light of the experiences during the past season or year. Unless these suggestions are systematically sought and recorded, a new group may repeat experiences at a later date

without having profited from those of the earlier group.

A systematized procedure should be developed whereby the student council and the principal or director of extracurricular activities receive a list of recommendations from the membership and sponsor of each activity at the close of the season or year. What suggestions, for example, do members of the football team have for the conduct of the activity next season? What recommendations do members of the Spanish club have regarding whether the club activities should be completely changed or eliminated? The activity program should be subject to periodic, systematic procedures of evaluation by the participants.

The scheduling of extracurricular activities should receive the same careful attention accorded other phases of the school program.

This principle regarding scheduling has been violated in numerous ways. When a large number of activities are scheduled during a single "activities period," students necessarily have numerous conflicts and thus are denied participation. Frequently activities are scheduled after the close of the regular school day and students who must work or travel long distances on busses are prevented from participating. Activity meetings or presentations are sometimes scheduled on nights preceding school days and students are forced either to lose sleep or stay away from the activities. Activities are sometimes scheduled in places where the facilities are inadequate or supervision is difficult.

Acceptance of this principle of management implies the desirability of lengthening scheduled phases of the school day, week, and year. Possible participation of students in out-of-school activities, including work experience, should be recognized. Activities should be scheduled at times that allow for the maximum use of school facilities and afford a maximum number of students the privileges of participation. In other words, extracurricular activities, out-of-school experiences, and the regular school subjects should be viewed in the same frame of reference by the schedule maker.

The programs of activities should be characterized by active participation on the part of the membership.

Student activities sometimes suffer from an affliction adult activities often incur, namely, a small group tends to take most of the responsibilities in planning and securing programs, conducting business, and generally running the organization. Club programs are likely to be relatively sterile if they consist mainly of showing movies, bringing a speaker from outside the organization or the school, or listening to a report from one or two members. The meetings will be of more value if they are characterized by group activities of one type or another in which most members regularly participate. Those who plan the programs of school organizations should check carefully to discover and analyze the amount and quality of participation on the part of every member of an organization.

One of the complaints most frequently made by students is that cliques develop who tend to run things in the organization. This danger may be minimized through careful planning of programs so that all members are involved. There should be relatively more "doing" and less "listening." Students thus learn habits of participation in organizations that may ultimately help change the pattern of behavior of many adults in comparable situations.

Activity programs should be planned to include service to school and community.

Young people should have experiences that demonstrate the role of organized groups in a democratic society. Groups should not exist for purely selfish purposes. There are many ways in which activity programs may serve school and community. Illustrations of some possible types of activities are given in Chapter 10.

INTERSCHOLASTIC CONTESTS

Many issues arise when a school participates in interscholastic contests. Decisions need to be made relative to the basis of participation, adherence to stated purposes of contests, acceptance

of responsibilities for the welfare of contestants, and the granting of awards to participants.

Contest participation should be on a basis of educational merit rather than because of pressures from the community, sponsoring organizations, or other sources.

Schools participate in interscholastic contests for many reasons. In a recent survey the following seven reasons for inaugurating contests were cited most frequently by high school principals of schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: contests have been entered because neighboring schools were doing so; most contests have been entered because of demands by the students in the school; most of the contests have been entered because of an aggressive principal or director of extracurricular activities; the state college or university has sponsored a contest in which representatives of the school took part; a service club has sponsored an oratorical, essay, or poster contest; and contests have been entered because some teacher saw in them an opportunity to add to the prestige of his or her personal or professional position.[10] Those planning the contest program need to ask themselves, "Are all of these reasons acceptable; do they stand the test of educational merit?"

Many illustrations of the application of this principle regarding contest participation may be cited. Night football is almost certain to produce more revenue and permit larger attendance than afternoon games. *Are the educational purposes of football served better by night contests?* Bands and orchestras are sometimes encouraged to travel long distances to participate in state and regional contests. Parents, service clubs, or the chamber of commerce seem quite willing to pay the expenses of the groups to the contests. *Are the educational purposes of instrumental music served better by participating in state or regional contests?*

Is interscholastic competition in athletics educationally desirable for boys, but undesirable for girls? Does the study of dra-

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[10] J. Lloyd Trump, *op. cit*, pp. 138-140.

matics serve educational needs of students better when a group participates in a contest at the state university? Do students become better citizens *as a result of* writing an essay on citizenship for a contest sponsored by a patriotic organization? And so on. What desirable changes in individual and group behavior are made possible *only* through contest participation? Those planning the program ought to study the foregoing and related questions very carefully.

The purposes of participation in contests should be strictly adhered to or else contests should be changed to make them harmonize with the stated aims.

It is readily apparent that a worth-while or an undesirable outcome may result from participation in contests. Once the purposes of contest participation have been defined in terms of changes in individual and group behavior, a school must assume responsibility for managing the contests in a way that will insure maximum realization of these purposes. A few possible questions may be cited for purposes of illustration. Does charging students admission to attend an interscholastic basketball game aid in achieving the purposes of that contest? Does scheduling four, eight, or ten teams in interscholastic athletics provide *greater* realization of the purposes of contests than scheduling two teams? How many hours of practice are warranted for an interscholastic athletic team, the band preparing for a contest, or the debate team? Is the yearbook handled differently *when it is to be judged* in interscholastic competition, and are these changes in harmony with the stated purposes of school publications? The foregoing and many other questions should be carefully studied in relation to the stated purposes of contest participation.

The school should accept responsibility for the physical, mental, and moral well-being of students participating in interscholastic contests.

Since participation in interscholastic contests takes students away from the home community, sometimes for long trips that keep them away from home overnight or until late at night,

responsibility for the physical, mental, and moral well-being of students is placed upon the representatives of the school. The most commonly accepted responsibility is merely providing transportation for students to and from contests. Another responsibility frequently assumed is to require that students make up work missed while they were away participating in contests. Insurance covering possible accidents to players in interscholastic contests is carried by approximately one-half of the schools.

To accept responsibilities such as those described in the preceding paragraph would require increases in the personnel employed in connection with interscholastic contests, improved facilities, and added financial support. All of these are necessary if the present program of interscholastic contests is to be continued and expanded along lines that are educationally defensible.

Awards other than scholarships for participation in contests should have intrinsic rather than extrinsic value.

Students who excel in the regular subjects of the school frequently receive high grades, honor certificates, honor medals, recognition at assemblies, scholarships, and the like. Those who excel in out-of-school experiences receive promotions, higher wages, awards, publicity in newspapers, and other indications of merit depending upon the particular activity in which they surpass their fellows. Students who excel in interscholastic contests usually receive school letters, sweaters, medals, banquets, and trips, sometimes scholarships and jobs, and much publicity in newspapers, magazines, and on the air.

Educators have frequently expressed the point of view that gains in knowledge and experience as well as personal satisfaction in superior achievement should be adequate rewards to students. Interestingly enough these arguments have particularly been voiced in relation to participation in interscholastic contests. Certainly most persons would agree that the monetary value of rewards should be kept at a minimum, with the possible exception of scholarship aid for deserving students to enable them to continue their education. Incidentally, in the case of

scholarship aid, it would seem logical that such aid should be available for excellence in all phases of the school program, including regular subjects, extracurricular activities, and out-of-school experiences.

STUDENT PARTICIPATION

The development of principles of management pertaining to student participation in activities becomes very fundamental. Consideration should be given to methods of securing participation, the implications of participation for pupil guidance, training programs for group members and leaders, and the maintenance of adequate records of participation.

The voluntary participation of students in extracurricular activities should be encouraged in order that a large percentage of the students may benefit from such experiences.

In analyzing the implications and operation of this principle, it is prudent to note first of all the present situation with respect to student participation in activities.

The percentage of students in different schools who participate in extracurricular activities varies so widely that it is impossible to provide any generalized statistics. Those in charge of the program in a given school need to make the study locally. In one study involving 3,581 students in five selected Illinois high schools, it was found that the number of activities participated in by these students during a given twelve-month period varied from none to 16. The average boy participated in 1.1 activities and the average girl in 1.7. Approximately one-fourth of the students did not participate in any activity during the period. Forty-eight per cent of the boys and 39 per cent of the girls were in either none or only one activity during the twelve-month period, and Two per cent of the students were in eight or more at moral uring the same period.[11]

portionately more students participate in smaller schools than in larger ones (based upon a random sample selected from 901 North Central Association high schools). Other studies have shown a positive correlation between participation in activities and grades earned in school so that an additional generalization might be that participants tend to come from those students who rank relatively high in academic achievement.

Pogue's study indicates that more participants come from the middle and upper socio-economic classes of society than from the lower classes.[12] Incidentally, this relationship between participation and socio-economic class was independent of place of residence or sex of pupils. There were some interesting differences among various activities. Boys' athletics and club activities had more participation from the lower socio-economic classifications while government-service, dramatics, and committee work were most popular with students from the upper classifications.

Results such as those indicated in the preceding paragraph are not surprising when the costs of participation in student activities are studied. A few illustrative findings by Hand in a recent study of "hidden tuition costs" operative in representative Illinois secondary schools shows how significant these expenses may be.[13] Forty-two per cent of the 79 Illinois schools included in the investigation required class dues; the median charge was $1.00 per school year. Median costs of playing on the school's athletic teams are reported as follows: baseball—$12.25; basketball—$2.80; football—$2.10; golf—$50.00; swimming—$1.50; tennis—$15.00, track—$2.70; and wrestling—$1.00. Of course, in some schools the costs were much higher.

Median costs of belonging to the band and orchestra are $3.50 and $2.25 respectively. In one school it costs $71.00 to belong to the pep club; the median cost for pep or cheer clubs is $3.50. Attendance at home basketball games requires a median pay-

[12] Earl Graham Pogue, op. cit., pp 134-140

[13] Harold C. Hand, Principal Findings of the 1947-1948 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Circular Series A, No. 51, (Springfield, Illinois; Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1949), pp. 54-61.

ment of $2.50 and at football games $1.40. The median cost of the yearbook is $2.25 and the newspaper $1.00. To attend all school dances for which a student is eligible costs juniors and seniors a median of $2.45; other school parties add an additional $1.20. Many other data are available in Hand's report; the foregoing are shown only as illustrations of the many costs found in representative schools. When these costs are added to those charged for enrolling in the regular subjects of the school, it is no wonder that students from the lower economic groups find it necessary to participate less frequently in activities in spite of the high regard with which students view such participation.

Significant differences among individuals are revealed when studies are made with respect to leadership opportunities in student activities. Of the 3,581 students in Trump's investigation referred to in a foregoing paragraph, 85 per cent of the boys and 86 per cent of the girls had no leadership opportunities involving selection to a major office during a twelve-month period. The data with respect to selection for minor offices are similar; 79 per cent of the boys and 78 per cent of the girls held no minor office during the period. Offices in school organizations are held more frequently by upperclassmen; only 7.2 per cent of the freshmen held major offices and almost three times as many seniors as freshmen held offices during a comparable period. Student leaders are also more likely to come from homes in the upper socio-economic classification.

It is interesting to note some of the reasons students give for not participating in activities. In the study referred to in the preceding paragraphs, 1,628 students indicated reasons why they did not belong to activities they would like to join. The following reasons were given: lack necessary ability or skill, lack time because of out-of-school activities, lack time because of out-of-school work, participation would interfere with regular school work, membership is by election, prevented by school regulations, lack of money, and opposition to the way it is being run. Since other possible reasons were checked by fewer than 100 boys or girls, they are not listed here.

The foregoing data highlight several conclusions if the prin-

ciple of management cited at the beginning of this division of the chapter is to be followed. More activities should be provided for underclassmen. Activities should be planned for students of lesser abilities and skills. More activities should be scheduled during the school day. Dues, assessments, special requirements for clothing or equipment, and other expenditures necessary for participation must be reduced to a minimum or eliminated. The place of extracurricular activities and out-of-school experiences in the total educational program needs re-examination. The nature of activity programs and services should be evaluated periodically.

Advising students regarding entrance into the extra-curricular program should be one function of the guidance services of the school.

There is some disagreement among educators with respect to controlling the minimum and maximum amount of student participation in activities. Policies have been adopted in some schools compelling all students to participate in at least one activity. Limitations have been placed upon the number of activities to which a student may belong or the number of major offices he may hold at one time. These regulations have been implemented by point systems in which participation in each activity or election to a given office is evaluated in terms of a specified number of points. Students may be required to earn a certain minimum number of points or they may be limited to earning a certain number during a given semester.

Those who oppose a mechanical point system urge that it is undesirable to attempt to fit all students into the same mould, that some may safely participate in more activities than others, and that it is unwise to force some students to participate in activities. In other words, amount of participation in activities should be a matter for counseling decision rather than mechanical control.

The first step in assisting pupils to make wise decisions with respect to participation in activities is the provision of adequate information. Some of the methods frequently used are school

assemblies, homeroom discussions, planned publicity in school or community newspapers, special bulletins, information in the student handbook, and publication of special extracurricular bulletins. Of course, informal conversations between pupils, teachers, and counselors constitute an effective method of acquainting pupils with activities.

There should also be a planned program for interesting students in appropriate activities. Discussion of activity participation should be a systematized feature of both individual and group guidance programs in the school. Counselors especially should help those students whose participation appears to be too limited or too extensive to analyze all aspects of the problem as it applies to them and make decisions accordingly. In other words, educational counseling should be broadened to include planning of extracurricular and out-of-school experiences along with those phases usually included.

A training program for officers and members of each organization should be undertaken.

Group activities may be made more effective if all of the persons involved receive training for their respective roles. These roles include group leaders (president, chairmen of committees, discussion leaders), recorders (secretaries, discussion recorders), treasurers, group observers, consultants (sponsor, experts of one type or another), and the members.

Leaders need help in such matters as planning meetings, conducting discussions, and organizing groups for action in a democratic manner. Some schools have organized Leaders Clubs under the direction of a social studies teacher. Recorders need instruction in keeping minutes, summaries of group discussions, and other necessary organization records, as well as in methods of correspondence. Such instruction might well be given by a member of the English faculty. Similarly, the treasurers should be assembled and given instruction by a member of the business education department.

Group observers, those persons who help evaluate group process and achievement, should also be given special training

by some faculty member who may be familiar with techniques for making groups function more effectively. Relatively few high school groups have had called to their attention the advantages of having group observers. Students and sponsors also need instructions regarding the role of consultants in a group activity. That consultants do not attempt to inflict personal opinions on the group to an unusual degree, that their principal function is to provide facts and answers primarily at the request of the group, and that consultants should strive constantly for acceptance on an equal basis with other group members have come to be accepted methods of functioning.

Group members themselves also need training with respect to the differences between good and ineffective group participation. Role playing may be used to illustrate such traits as hobby riding, hair splitting, interrupting, non-participating, talking too much, and other characteristics of poor group members as well as those traits which belong to good or effective members, such as *process evaluating, content evaluating, generalizing, issue stating,* and the like.

Unless care is taken to train group members and officers, many of the potential values in student participants may be limited. To state as a purpose of an activity the development of leadership, and then assume that leadership develops automatically after someone is chosen or elected seems unrealistic. Students are not born with tendencies to function effectively in groups. These things must be learned through planned experiences.

Records of participation, including an evaluation of the student's participation, should be made a part of the permanent school record of each student.

The same reasons that have prompted schools to evaluate the achievement of students in the regular school subjects and to keep permanent records of accomplishment are valid with respect to participation in extracurricular activities. Membership in an activity does not imply that desirable changes in growth automatically result. Students, parents, prospective employers, and college admissions officers need to know much more than

the mere fact that a student joined one or more activities in a secondary school; all of these persons need to know what happened as a result of participation.

Student progress should be appraised in terms of accomplishment of the purposes of the activity expressed as changes in pupil growth. Such evaluations should be made cooperatively by individual students, group members, and the faculty sponsor in charge. Growth cannot be expressed adequately in terms of a single letter or percentage grade, but it should doubtless be represented by ratings on several aspects of development. The exact nature of the evaluations to be made should be developed by students and teachers in the local school situation. The results of the evaluation should then be made a part of the permanent record of the student.

SPONSORSHIP OF ACTIVITIES

The success of an extracurricular program depends very largely on the functioning of faculty sponsors. How are sponsors to be selected? What provisions should be made in adjusting the work-loads of sponsors? What should be the relationships between the sponsors and the activities with which they work? How may sponsors be freed from unusual community pressure to produce winning groups?

Well-qualified sponsors should be carefully selected and in-service training programs devised in order to make persons more effective as sponsors.

Interest, ability, training, and experience are fundamental matters usually considered in determining the qualifications of a person for a position. It seems axiomatic that these qualities should be considered in appointing sponsors of activities. In actual practice only one of the above qualities was mentioned by one-half or more of the administrators of North Central Association secondary schools as a qualification considered desirable; that quality was interest.[14]

That training for sponsorship is not general is indicated by

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[14] J. Lloyd Trump, *op. cit.*, pp. 93-101.

an analysis of the qualifications reported by 128 sponsors in the study referred to in the preceding paragraph. Slightly more than one-fourth of the sponsors said they had received special training; these were primarily athletic coaches and speech and music instructors. Eighty-five per cent of the sponsors indicated as a qualification that they were teaching in a subject area closely related to the extracurricular activity; that was the most frequently mentioned qualification. Fewer than one-half of the sponsors indicated they had gained experience by participating in a similar activity in college.

The foregoing data and the results of other studies seem to imply, first of all, that preparation for sponsorship of extra-curricular activities should occupy a more prominent place in the training programs of teacher education institutions. A second implication of the data is that in-service training programs designed to help teachers become more effective as sponsors need to be undertaken in most schools. Finally, it would seem advisable that those persons responsible for selecting personnel reconsider carefully the desirable qualifications of sponsors and take these into consideration when teachers are employed.

A clearly defined set of procedures should be established for the appointment of sponsors. The inquiry among North Central Association schools revealed an interesting difference between the selection of athletic and non-athletic sponsors. The former are most frequently appointed by the superintendent of schools and the latter most often by the principal. This dichotomy appears open to question if all types of activities are to receive the same appraisal by school officials. Another issue on which there is difference of opinion is the extent to which student wishes should be considered in the selection. It would appear desirable to have student opinions considered as one aspect in the selection process although there are other important considerations, some of which might not be readily apparent to young persons.

Sponsorship of extracurricular activities should be considered in planning the total work-load of teachers.

Many schools do not have well-defined policies governing work-loads of teachers. There has been a tendency to assign teachers the standard load of five classes per day with relatively little consideration for extra duties. Teachers who are very popular with young people and consequently in demand as club sponsors, chaperones, and the like, may be flattered by the attention and sometimes accept more hours of extra duties than is wise. School administrators have sometimes rationalized that since many of these teachers were young teachers, they could work harder.

The question of salary differentials is closely associated with that of work-load. Should coaches of athletic teams, band instructors, or other sponsors be paid salaries higher than other teachers of comparable training and experience because of these extra duties? Some argue that these salary differentials are necessary to compete with other school districts in hiring certain outstandingly successful persons. On the other hand, some school systems have had highly successful programs without salary differentials for extracurricular sponsors.

Studies should be conducted in local school systems in order to find out the number of hours required to sponsor different activities, to note the relative amount of responsibility involved, and to calculate the results for each person in determining the total work-load. For example, it apparently requires from 400 to 500 hours of time to coach a varsity basketball team. These hours should be added to hours spent by the coach in preparing for and teaching classes, grading papers, preparing reports, counseling students, serving on committees, and performing other duties in connection with his school work. The total number of hours should then be compared with those of other faculty members for whom similar calculations have been made.

If the basketball coach works more hours than other persons, his work-load should be lightened, or he should be paid an extra salary based upon the number of excess hours worked. The former adjustment would seem in the long run to be more desirable. All members of the staff should participate in this study. Morale is likely to be much higher as a result and sponsorship

of extracurricular activities may be placed on a sounder basis insofar as work-load is concerned.

Not all teachers should be expected to be effective sponsors. Teachers who are not appointed as sponsors should be assigned other duties for which they are suited. In such a manner, the work-loads of all teachers may be equalized so that those who appear to be unusually effective as sponsors of extracurricular activities are not penalized.

Sponsors should bear an advisory rather than a dictatorial relationship to the membership of the activity being supervised.

Much cooperative teacher-pupil planning, conducting, and evaluating of activity programs should be a characteristic of the relationships between pupils and sponsors in an activity. Of course, the relationships should be similar to those generally followed in democratically oriented classrooms.

Activities should be managed so that sponsors are freed to the largest degree possible from community pressures.

One of the problems frequently associated with sponsorship of extracurricular activities is the existence of community pressures for kinds of success not encountered in connection with other phases of the school program. The community is more concerned over the percentage of victories in football than in track; of basketball more than in debate; of band more than in Latin; of livestock judging more than in mathematics. There are, of course, many reasons for these special interests. The prestige of a town or city becomes associated with the success of teams. Sports enthusiasts are more vocal than other persons. There are more articles in the papers. It is easier, and more interesting for most people, to see a football team in action than an algebra class or the Spanish club.

There are several ways of minimizing community pressures. Doubtless the fundamental method is through increased community participation in policy making for the school system. As more persons become involved in discussing educational aims with the professional staff, greater understanding and appreciation of the total program, including the place of athletics,

music, or other activities, will result. Other ways of reducing pressure include expanding the program so that more students and more teams play regularly in interscholastic competition, placing athletics on the same basis as non-athletic activities, eliminating admission charges to students, and providing strong board of education support of the faculty and administration in their efforts to present a well-balanced program.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Questions arise concerning ways in which policies are developed for the management of the extracurricular program, who is charged with responsibility for administering the policies after they are developed, and the administrative relationships between athletic and non-athletic activities.

A planning body, representative of the constituent groups of the school, needs to be organized in order to advise the board of education regarding policies for the extracurricular program and to assist in implementing these policies in the local school.

The board of education is legally empowered to approve policies for the management of the extracurricular activities program. The board, however, in most cases needs to receive recommendations for the development of policies. Such recommendations should be carefully developed by the constituent groups of the school. These groups include students, parents, teachers, non-academic employees, administrators, and the adult community in general.

No single pattern for the make-up of planning bodies may be proposed since these groups should be developed in terms of local conditions. A few suggestions may prove helpful. The planning body might be composed of four students, three teachers, one non-academic employee, four parents, two administrators, and four representatives of the community. Obviously the numbers for each of these groups should be varied in terms of local needs.

The exact proportion of representation of the different groups is not important since decisions should be reached on the basis

of group consensus rather than by simple majority votes. The students might be the officers of the student council elected by the whole student body. In any case, the students serving on the planning body should be members of the student council. The parents might be elected by the Parent-Teacher Association. Representatives of *teachers and non-academic employees should* be elected by those groups. The administrators might be the principal and the director of extracurricular activities. The community representatives might be elected from a community advisory council composed of representatives of women's clubs, service clubs, patriotic, religious, and national groups, organized labor, and organized management. The important consideration is that the members of the planning body represent definitely organized constituencies, so that when policies are being discussed, the representatives may refer these questions to the groups they represent for discussion and recommendations.

Some readers may believe such an organization for policy making is needlessly complex. In actual operation this criticism need not apply. It is important that all of the groups that may be affected in one way or another have an opportunity to take part in the determination of policies. If this involvement is taken seriously, and there is no really good reason why such cannot be the case, some of the evils which have been attached to the extracurricular program can be eliminated and much desirable moral and financial support can be obtained. The groups need not meet often after preliminary policies are adopted. The administration of policies is the time-consuming job and this is done by paid employees. The groups should meet from time to time to re-examine policies and hear reports from administrative officers charged with execution of the policies.

The responsibility for the management of the extracurricular activities program rests with the principal although in many cases this responsibility should be delegated to a director of extracurricular activities.

There must be an executive head charged with responsibility

for carrying out policies developed by the committee on extra-curricular activities and approved by the board of education. The principal as head of the school must accept this responsibility. Because of his many other duties, it is assumed that the principal will in most instances delegate these responsibilities to some other qualified individual.

Even in smaller schools, such delegation of responsibility would appear to be desirable although the principal may wish to serve as director of activities and delegate some other responsibility such as that for guidance, curriculum development, or business management. Decisions with respect to which functions an administrator retains personally and which are delegated should be based upon a careful analysis of competencies of himself and the staff with whom he works.

The person charged with administrative responsibility for the activity program should have adequate time available for these duties. Such a person will have many duties including overseeing the operation of most of the principles of management described in this chapter. There will also be duties of a supervisory nature involving the organization of many types of group meetings and individual conferences. The fact that many activity programs appear to be loosely managed and suffer from various types of imbalance may be due to the lack of executive direction of democratically developed policies.

The administrative relationships for athletic and non-athletic activities should be the same.

The foregoing principle should be axiomatic, but in practice there are many violations of it. The administrative relationships for appointing, supervising, and dismissing the coach of athletic teams may not be the same as is the case for other activities. Budgetary provisions sometimes vary. Athletics may be expected to pay its own way while other activities may receive partial subsidies from tax funds. The director of athletics may not be subordinate administratively to a director of extra-curricular activities.

Whenever the school organization itself places one type of

activity on a basis different from others, it is only natural that persons not connected with the school may develop similar differentiations. All activities should be subjected to similar administrative controls.

Financial Support

Nearly all of the foregoing proposals for managing the extracurricular program have financial implications. Topics requiring attention include possible sources of funds to support the program and accounting procedures necessary in the efficient handling of funds.

Extracurricular activities should be given adequate support from tax funds by the board of education.

Most school systems do not know exactly what the program of extracurricular activities costs either the taxpayers or individual students and their families. Such costs from tax funds include use of buildings, supplies and equipment, salaries of teachers, administrators, clerks, custodians, and bus drivers, and payment for transportation. Costs to individuals include those for admission, dues, special clothing, equipment, meals away from home or at odd hours, and so on. School officials do not ordinarily calculate unit costs on such a refined basis and families seldom have such carefully computed records. That these costs to individuals is considerable is shown by recent studies by Hand cited earlier.[15]

Students should not be prevented from participating in extracurricular activities because of costs. The values placed upon these activities by students has been indicated earlier in the chapter. In view of the fact that there is a positive relationship between dropping out of school and socio-economic status (the percentage of drop-outs is higher among the children from poorer homes,[16] and since the cost of participating in extracurricular activities is relatively high, it would appear in the

[15] Harold C. Hand, *op. cit*

[16] Charles M. Allen, *The Development of the "Holding Power" Study for the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program,* unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, (Urbana: The University of Illinois, 1950), p. 78.

interests of a democratically oriented school system that more of the costs of participation should be paid from tax funds.

Assuming that participation in activities is educationally desirable, there seems to be little justification for paying the costs of an algebra, machine shop, or United States history class from tax revenue, and at the same time expecting basketball to be supported out of gate receipts, or anticipating that wrestling or debate should be supported by receipts from basketball and dramatics respectively, simply because students will pay admissions to those events. Some persons, of course, argue that parents do not object as strenuously to paying admissions for students as they do to paying taxes. This argument might be justified if it did not work hardships upon the youth of certain classes in society.

A few boards of education are taking steps to reduce the costs of participation in activities. In Bloomington, Illinois, for example, the board recently abolished all admission charges for students to athletic, social, and speech events and provided each student with a free copy of the school paper and yearbook. Such a move seems essential if all students are to be given equal opportunities to participate in activities. All costs for uniforms, special equipment, transportation of team members to games away from home, and other expenses directly related to participation in activities must be met from tax funds. To charge individual students directly or indirectly for participating in activites ether as spectators or participants and thus automatically exclude or greatly limit participating by students in lower economic groups is a violation of the principle of free schools equally open to all American youth.

Everything considered, it seems that more tax funds should be used for the support of activities than has been done in most schools in the past. Admissions and fees charged students for games, presentations, publications, and social activities should be abolished or made very small. Charges to adults should be based, as is the case of all adult amusements, on what these persons will pay; the school here is in competition with commercial enterprises and must view its operations accordingly.

Many of the improvements in the program of extracurricular activities suggested in this and the following chapter will require expenditure of additional funds. These funds will be forthcoming only on the basis that activities are viewed as integral parts of the educational program and expenditures for them are based upon the same types of research and study as given to science, mathematics, social studies, vocational subjects, and other areas of the curriculum. There should be no differences in philosophy of support among the various areas of the educational program.

Procedures in receiving, expending, and accounting for activity funds should teach students correct attitudes and habits in handling funds.

Court decisions have held that activity funds are legally under the control of the board of education and are subject to the same controls exercised over all funds administered under the direction of the board of education.[17] Regardless of whether or not laws are passed in given states, the procedures for the management of school funds should be carefully planned.

The amounts of money handled are sizable even in the smallest schools. When the total receipts and expenditures for all activities are considered, the amount of money involved during a year is usually in excess of $1,000 in schools with 100-150 students; in large schools the amount may be as large as $100,000 or more. It is difficult to cite exact figures because the amount varies so widely depending upon local methods of accounting and allocation of expenses and income. The management of funds is usually well-known to large numbers of students as they participate actively in receiving and expending the money. Many teaching opportunities are presented in connection with the handling of these funds.

A fundamental principle in handling activity funds is that there should be an auditable record of every transaction. This means that a paper record, duly attested, should be a part of

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[17] C. Baker Thompson, "What is Effective Administration of Pupil Activity Finances?" *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals,* 33 No. 162 (April 1949), p. 287.

every receipt and expenditure. Whenever an expenditure is made, there should be a requisition signed by the sponsor, an authorized member of the organization, and the central treasurer instructing that a check should be drawn for payment. All bills should be paid by check. The transaction is completed when the cancelled check is filed along with the requisition and invoice for each expenditure.

When funds are received by school officials, a receipt in duplicate should always be issued. The teacher or other person who receives funds from a student should always issue such a receipt, and the central treasurer in receiving funds from teachers should also issue a receipt. Whenever possible, all funds from students should be received at a central place so that individual teachers do not need to receive funds from students.

Two general procedures are recommended for protecting activities against loss of funds. The central treasurer of the school should be adequately bonded. If teachers are involved in collecting funds, these teachers also should be bonded. There should also be an annual audit of all accounts. This audit should be made by a competent professional auditor not connected with the school system. This audit may be done at the same time the general finances of the school district are being audited.

Budgets to guide expending and receiving funds should be made by each activity and for the total school. Not only is this procedure desirable from the standpoint of effective management, but it also provides an opportunity for teaching students the importance of a budget. Those schools in which there is a general activities fee or a flat grant of funds from the board of education have in certain cases given the student council responsibility for adopting an all-school activities budget. Representatives of individual activities appear before the student council to seek portions of the funds. This has been regarded by some as good training for citizenship in that it tends to duplicate procedures followed by adult groups.

The foregoing suggestions for handling activity funds are just as appropriate for small schools as they are for larger ones. Data from the North Central Association study referred to in fore-

1. Make a report involving a study of the historical development and expansion of extracurricular activities along with analysis of the growth and expansion of secondary education during the past 50 to 100 years.

2. Some writers in education have advocated the abolition of the term "extracurricular activities" in view of the fact that the educational program should be broadened in scope to include all of the so-called extracurricular activities as a part of the curriculum. What is your reaction to this argument?

3. There are many interesting and thought provoking studies which may easily be made in local schools. Members of the class or a faculty group might wish to conduct one or more of the following studies:

   (a) What are the relative values placed by students in the local community on the following six types of activities (to be listed by each student in order of personal satisfaction): activities centering around the home, activities centering around non-commercial agencies (church, Y.M.C.A., etc.), regular school subjects, activities centering around commercial agencies, unplanned peer group activities (meeting a group of friends on the street, in a drugstore, etc.), extra-class activities, and activities centering around the home. (In conducting an opinion poll or questionnaire study, each of the foregoing terms should be defined more in detail for the secondary school students.)

   (b) What is the extent of participation in extra-class activities in the local school?

   (c) Who participates in extra-class activities in the local school? (any number of classifications may be used, such as socio-economic status, classification in school, racial or national origins, location of homes, etc.)

   (d) What are the reasons students give for not participating in extracurricular activities?

   (e) What are the costs for participating in activities either as a primary participant or as a spectator?

   (f) What amount of time is required by faculty sponsors in relation to extracurricular activities?

4. Analyze carefully the extracurricular activities program in a given school with reference to the principles of vertical and

horizontal balance in the program, as described in this chapter.

5. State the arguments for scheduling of activities, contest participation, responsibilities of the school for the welfare of individual students, scholastic requirements for participation, maintenance of adequate records of participation, equalizing of work-load of teachers engaged in sponsoring extracurricular activities, and procedures for the financial support of activities.

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11

Extracurricular Activities:
Improving Programs

J. Loyd Trump

The preceding chapter was concerned with what might be
termed overall principles for managing the program of extra-
curricular activities. In this chapter suggestions are given for
improving different types of activities. Assemblies, athletics,
class organizations, clubs, commencements, contests, home-
rooms, honoraries, music organizations, publications, social func-
tions, speech activities, student participation in control, tours,
and out-of-school experiences are discussed in that order. An
effort is made in each case to describe the general nature of the
activity, to cite some examples of its practice, and to provide
suggestions for improvement and further consideration.

Assemblies

The school assembly is one of the oldest and most popular
types of school activities. Chapel exercises were regularly held
in many schools. Assembly programs were often used to open
the school day. Friday afternoon literary programs were an-
other common activity. Some of the currently accepted purposes
of school assemblies are to provide outlets of expression for
students, to motivate the work of classes, and to unify the school
and build morale.

Kinds of assemblies. There are many kinds of assembly programs. Five major types might be classified as follows: (1) student centered, (2) faculty centered, (3) exchange, (4) community, and (5) outside professional talent. Any one of the foregoing might include lectures, panel discussions, symposia, dramatizations, use of audio-visual aids, music, demonstrations, and exhibitions.

Student centered programs develop both from class and extracurricular work. Members of a social studies class might present a panel discussion or symposium regarding some controversial issue of the day. A program honoring George Washington frequently may be given by students enrolled in a history or English class. A home economics, agriculture, or radio class can prepare a demonstration. The music, art, and speech departments can combine to present a Christmas program. Members of an athletic team and others can participate in a pep assembly. Students are inducted into the Honor Society. A school club might present a report of some successful project. Candidates for office at a student election can make speeches. A movie of last week's football game might be shown. All students can join in group singing.

Faculty centered assembly programs are usually held less frequently, but they have an important place in the total program. A faculty member who has taken an unusual trip, held an important position, developed a hobby of general interest, or has some material of interest to the student body at large can be invited to speak. The principal, director of activities, sponsor of the student council, or some other person with responsibility might be asked to present certain ideas that will be of significant importance to the entire student body. A group of faculty persons can present a panel or symposium on some subject of general interest. Students enjoy these faculty centered assemblies since they frequently see faculty members in roles different from those typically observed in classrooms.

the school of the visitors to provide a program there. The types of programs are as varied as those described in the earlier paragraph dealing with student centered programs. There should be careful advance planning between the schools which are going to exchange so that the programs fit into the general plans of the assembly committee or other group responsible for planning the series of assemblies. One of the principal advantages in the exchange assembly idea is that the students have contacts with students of other schools in addition to times when they meet in athletic competition. Stimulation is received from each other in terms of ideas and better ways of doing things. Better relations between schools may be developed.

Community programs are similar to faculty centered programs in that typically they are presentations by adults who have some particular message or entertainment of worthwhile interest to the school group. Some interesting presentations by persons of different national groups are given. Leaders in the community present views on controversial issues. A local lecturer or entertainer of note is invited to present a program. Representatives of a patriotic or service organization provide a program in observance of a special day or launch a project of interest to youth. Those in charge of assemblies must work especially carefully with these groups in advance of the program to see that the materials are presented in an organized, competent manner, that time schedules are planned, and that other essential elements of good assembly programs included.

Commercial programs. From time to time outside professional talent is also brought to the school for assembly programs. There are commercial agencies a part of whose business consists in furnishing talent to schools conducting almost every conceivable type of program. The costs of these programs vary widely depending chiefly upon the eminence of the talent. The extent to which professional talent is used depends to some extent upon the type and location of the school. Some teachers and administrators justify a comparatively extensive use of professional talent on the grounds that students would not be able to see such persons perform unless an opportunity is provided through

the school. One of the practices followed by some schools in connection with professional talent is very questionable: charging students admission to these assembly programs. Students who are either unable or unwilling to pay are sent to a study hall, the gymnasium, or home during the assembly.

If the assembly is valuable from an educational standpoint, the costs of securing the program should be borne by the school and all students should be permitted to attend without charge. A possible exception might be made if the assembly program is presented after school hours by some organization aiming to raise money for a worthy purpose.

Many administrative questions need to be settled with respect to assembly programs. The auditorium may not be large enough to hold the entire student body so it may be desirable to work out a schedule to permit repeating the programs with different class groups scheduled each period. Assemblies are held at almost every time during the school day. Some schools omit a period entirely; others shorten periods and use a different daily schedule when an assembly is planned. Although students are usually assigned seats in the auditorium with faculty members in charge of each section, some schools have developed student-control to the point where such arrangements are unnecessary. Some schools have standardized procedures for opening and closing assembly programs, such as providing music while students enter and leave, posting colors, singing the national anthem, giving the pledge to the flag, and the like. Procedures need to be developed regarding meeting visitors, presiding at assemblies, planning and evaluating programs. Usually an assembly committee, composed of students and faculty members, is helpful in administering and supervising the assembly program. Planning a program for a semester in advance prevents accepting inferior programs "just to have an assembly."

ATHLETICS

That part of the extracurricular program which typically attracts the largest number of participants and spectators, includ-

ing persons outside the school, and results in the greatest amount of travel away from the school, and produces the largest amount of revenue and expenditures is, of course, the athletic program. More words of condemnation and praise have doubtless been written and more public and private arguments, friendly and unfriendly, engaged in concerning athletics than any other phase of the program. More sponsors of athletic activities have been paid higher salaries than other teachers and more of them have been dismissed for lack of success than in any other activity. Even school administrators have been employed and discharged because of their attitude toward athletics; teachers' salaries have been raised because a community was enthusiastic over a successful athletic program and believed its schools were unusually effective. The present discussion touches only a few of the highlights regarding this important phase of the extracurricular program.

There are two major divisions of the program: (1) intramural athletics involving teams and individuals playing one another within the local school, and (2) interscholastic athletics involving teams and individuals competing with those from other schools. Both are important elements of a successful program. In practice there seems to be no necessary dichotomy between the two; the strongest intramural athletic programs seem to be found where the interscholastic program is highly developed on a sound basis.

Interscholastic programs. The success of an interscholastic program should be measured largely in terms of the number of different boys, and possibly girls, who participate in a wide variety of types of games in interscholastic competition during the year. No effort will be made here to settle the controversy regarding the extent to which girls and junior high school age boys should participate in interscholastic athletics. Authorities and state athletic associations differ on these issues. On the basis of experience, the writer believes a limited number of games during a season, for example, six or eight games in basketball, is desirable for junior high school boys and girls and for senior high school girls. Women coaches should be provided

for girls' teams and games should be played with nearby schools in the afternoon or on Saturday mornings rather than at night for both girls and junior high school boys. The author also believes that high school boys' teams should play fewer games than is now typical in many instances; a limit of 12 to 16 basketball games, for example, would seem desirable.

The important matter is that a large proportion of students should be given an opportunity for *experiences in interscholastic competition.* This objective requires that more than one or two teams per sport engage in interscholastic competition and that several sports be included in the program. In all but the smallest schools enrolling 150 or fewer students, there should be a minimum of four teams in basketball and football in interscholastic league competition; in larger schools the number might well be as high as eight or ten. League rules should set standards so that competition among the teams is on an equitable basis. Championships may be developed for each team level. *Four* such teams might be freshmen, sophomore, junior varsity and varsity; *eight* teams would result if there were first and second teams in each level or if each were divided on a lightweight-heavyweight basis. Such a program would provide a large number of students with the purported advantages of competition with students from other schools.

Teams and individuals should be able to *win a fair share of victories over a period of years.* This objective may be realized if leagues of competing schools are carefully planned. A school should not attempt to maintain membership, perhaps for prestige reasons, in a league in which its teams are doomed to a large proportion of defeats, nor should it remain in a league in which its teams do not receive vigorous competition from other schools because the others are perennially weaker.

Supervision. Participants should receive *careful supervision* in all aspects of interscholastic athletics. State associations should strictly enforce rules regarding eligibility in terms of residence and school membership in good standing. The local school is obligated to provide adequate physical examinations and health services for all students, including those in athletics.

Furnishing quality supplies and equipment is also important; injuries are more likely to result when inadequate equipment is provided. Students should not be expected to furnish expensive equipment since this procedure tends to place hardships upon students from less privileged homes. Care must be exercised that safety precautions are observed for students being transported to games. Students away from home should be carefully supervised.

Spectator conduct. Sometimes spectators become a problem at athletic contests. Constructive measures may help students and adults learn how to conduct themselves properly at a contest, even when the score is tied near the end of a contest with a traditional rival and a questionable foul is called against the home team. There are several aspects to be considered. General relations may be improved between schools. In cities having more than one high school or among high schools in a league when the rivalry is especially keen, relations have been improved when joint pep rallies or exchange assemblies with appropriate talks by players, cheer leaders, coaches, and others are held the day before the game. Pre-season cooperative game demonstrations and joint band and cheer programs have produced similar results. Cheer leaders are key persons in developing good sportsmanship. In many leagues regularly scheduled all-league meetings of cheer leaders are held to discuss codes of conduct and ways of improving spectator support at games.

Troublesome adults are usually best dealt with as individuals although general announcements in the papers and at games are also helpful. The conduct of coaches and players is also instrumental in developing good relationships. Coaches who insist on temperamental outbursts against officials, players from a visiting school, or spectators should be dismissed from coaching duties. Finally, because in spite of all constructive measures, individual students, adults, or small groups at times get out of hand at a game, adequate policing of the stands should be provided. *Such services usually may be secured through arrangements with the local police.* It is desirable, however, in addition to police protection, to have an adequate number of faculty

members on duty throughout the stands. Such persons should be allowed to include these duties among their total work-load as faculty members.

Managing contests. Because an athletic game provides an opportunity for more adults to see the school in operation than almost any other activity, it is desirable that the events of the contest be well-planned. In addition to the measures suggested to control crowds, several other matters should be given attention. Ticket sales should be organized in an equitable, dignified manner to prevent scalping if the demand should exceed the supply. It is best to sell reserved seats in a gymnasium with choice of seats determined by lot. Students should have priority, up to a specified time, over adults. Tickets to special events, such as tournaments where the demand is unusually great, should be made available by lot to season ticket holders.

Flag raising, band performances, between-halves programs, and any other special events, should be carefully planned and executed to reflect credit upon the school. Showmanship is desirable. Parking facilities should be carefully planned and supervised; parking assistants and police protection should be provided. From the time the adult guest approaches the game site until he leaves, he should feel that everything has been carefully planned and systematically managed.

Intramural programs. In most junior high schools and many senior high schools the provision of a well-organized intramural activity is an integral part of the athletic program. In the Galesburg, Illinois, Senior High School, for example, 74 per cent of 500 boys enrolled are reported as participants in 31 intramural sports events.[1] Other schools report comparable participation by both boys and girls. Sometimes the games are played at noon while other schools schedule games after school, in the evening, and on Saturdays. Varsity players often serve as coaches and officials. Equipment and awards are provided by many schools for participants.

Schools that make careful plans and provide the necessary

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[1] Charles J. Bednar, "Intramural Athletic Program," *School Activities,* 20 (January, 1949), p. 173.

building facilities and personnel usually have little difficulty in developing excellent programs of intramural athletics. *There must be adequate financial support from tax funds. It is unrealistic to expect the interscholastic athletics program to support intramurals, and to expect varsity coaches to run the program in their spare time is likely to prove fatal to its success.*

Class Organizations

The purposes served by class organizations vary according to the size of school and local tradition. In smaller schools many typical homeroom activities are carried on by class organizations. Included among activities organized along class lines are assembly programs, intramural athletics, contests and drives, honoraries, publications such as the yearbook, social affairs, special activities such as those associated with commencement, student participation in control, and tours. Sometimes there are guidance functions such as the selection of senior students to help "little brothers" or "sisters" among the incoming students. *Details with respect to the organization and supervision of the foregoing activities are discussed elsewhere in this chapter and in the book.*

Many of the principles of management described in the preceding chapter are especially relevant to class organization activities. One of the problems is to secure a wide distribution of participation among members of the class. Sometimes a class elects officers and then assumes that the work of the group will be done by these officers and the faculty sponsor. One possible scheme to widen participation is to prepare early in the year a list of all class functions along with a breakdown of the kinds of duties involved in each function. Students are then asked *to make choices among these duties so that the officers or other designated persons may assign duties widely on the basis of expressed wishes.*

Financial problems. The question of class finances may be a difficult one. Classes sometimes raise relatively large sums of money in order to finance a senior trip, a special publication,

or a gift to the school. These funds may be raised as a result of dances, programs, and the like, as well as by assessed dues. Dues as high as one dollar or more per semester are often assessed although dues are usually much smaller amounts. Questions must always be raised concerning dues and money-making projects. Do these activities constitute "hidden tuition" costs? Are these financial burdens a factor in causing some students to drop out of school? Are the purposes for which the money is raised (tours, publications, and gifts) desirable in the educational program for all youth? If they are, should not the funds be provided from tax sources?

Class rings and special garb may also constitute an expensive charge to students. Many school officials would prefer to eliminate such purchases by students, but they find local tradition too strong to discontinue the practice. One means of lowering costs of class rings and pins that has worked satisfactorily in some schools is to adopt standard jewelry that may be purchased at retail stores upon presentation of an identification card by a student. The fact that the same style jewelry is sold in larger quantities results in lower prices. An important advantage is that students can recognize the school insignia easily and thus know that a given individual is a member or an alumnus of his school; that is usually impossible when the ring style is changed each year. Class garb may similarly be standardized to reduce costs. The same is also true with respect to commencement announcements and other class organization costs.

Sponsors. The selection of class sponsors may be on several bases. The sponsor(s) may be selected by the class by vote, a method which may have objectionable features since it tends to be recognized as a popularity contest among teachers. Sometimes sponsors are appointed by the principal, possibly also objectionable since the students may not wish to work with the person selected.

A preferable plan is to select all members of the faculty automatically as class sponsors, with a system of chairman-sponsor

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² See pp. 223 and 224, Chapter 10.

chosen by lot for each class. For example, if the school is organized into homerooms on a grade-level basis, all of the homeroom teachers of a given grade-level are automatically named class sponsors. *The officers of the class, or a student committee, meet with the teachers involved, select one teacher as chairman-sponsor and divide other duties among the teacher group.* One or two teachers then work with the group planning a dance and so on through all of the class activities. Such a system tends to involve more teachers as sponsors and divides the load more equitably. The chairman-sponsor supervises the total program, but escapes many details and has a load lighter than is the case when one or two persons alone are assigned as sponsors. Such a plan also results in class sponsors continuing with the class through graduation.

Clubs

One of the especially noteworthy characteristics of adult Americans, although not a monopoly trait to be sure, is a tendency to organize societies, clubs, lodges, and many other kinds of groups. Adult Americans spend many of their waking hours in organization work of one kind or another. Whether this tendency of adults to organize clubs is responsible for the large development of school clubs, or whether the students themselves early feel the same organization urge may be questionable, but the fact remains that most schools, elementary as well as secondary, have many clubs. As early as 1931, Fretwell found 1,372 clubs listed in the handbooks of 100 senior high schools.[3] Gruhn similarly lists a large number of clubs found in junior high schools.[4] The following is a general classification of clubs provided by Reavis and Van Dyke in the National Survey of Secondary Education: (1) student government, school service, and honorary organizations; (2) social, moral, leadership, and guidance clubs; (3) departmental clubs;

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[3] Elbert K. Fretwell, *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931), p. 253.

[4] William T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, (New York: The Ronald Press, 1947), pp. 355-359.

(4) publications and journalistic organizations; (5) dramatic clubs, literary societies, and forensic activities; (6) musical organizations; and (7) special interest clubs.[5]

Planning club programs. No single pattern of recommended clubs may be listed for the guidance of those planning or evaluating a club program in a secondary school. The total number of clubs will depend upon the size of the school, the extent to which club activities have been absorbed into the regular classwork of the school, and the amount of club activity in out-of-school experiences. A committee of students and faculty members should take all of the foregoing factors into consideration in analyzing the program. A study of clubs provided in other schools as well as the use of the classification by Reavis and Van Dyke will provide a useful frame of reference. If there appear to be gaps in the program, students may be informed of possible additions through assemblies, homeroom discussions, class study, and the like.

School clubs attempt to serve a variety of purposes. Considerable emphasis was placed in the preceding chapter on the need for clubs to function as service organizations. Many examples of clubs that have functioned in this manner may be cited. The Woodrow Wilson High School in Washington, D. C., for example, has a Newscasters Club whose members broadcast daily a summary of significant news over the school's public address system.[6] In the Natrona County High School, Casper, Wyoming, a Newcomers Club includes all students new to the school and plans a program to help them become acquainted with and participate in activities.[7]. The Crusader Commercial Club of Rural High School, Buhler, Kansas, handles the accounting, advertising, ushering, and other tasks connected with the management of crowds at school and com-

[5] William C. Reavis, and Henry E. Van Dyke, *Nonathletic Extracurriculum Activities*, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 26, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932, pp. 78-79.

[6] Anne Ellis, "Significant News of the Day Broadcast to Student Body," *School Activities*, 20 (February, 1949), pp. 204-205.

[7] Kathleen Henry, "A Club for Newcomers," *School Activities*, 19 (February, 1948), pp. 186-187.

munity functions, providing services for forty or more different activities.[8] In Seattle, Washington, the Minute Service Club boys of Roosevelt High School plant trees and purchase and develop waste tracts of land.[9]

Clubs and curriculum. Many examples of close relationships between club activities and the curriculum may be cited. In the West Hill School, Newark, New Jersey, for example, a club of 77 boys and girls formed because of interest in radio work wrote scripts, used recording machines, visited radio stations, and participated in broadcasts. The club no longer exists since it has now been replaced by a radio workshop authorized to give school credit.[10] In a Prospective Nurses Club, the girls of Henry Snyder High School, Jersey City, New Jersey, have developed a model hospital room at the school, invite graduate nurses as guests, visit hospitals, and do other things designed to aid girls in making intelligent vocational choices.[11]

FTA (Future Teachers of America) Clubs, student groups affiliated with the National Education Association, are being organized in an increasing number of schools in an effort to stimulate interest in the teaching profession. Members of the Farrell-McGuffey Chapter of the FTA in Franklin High School, Franklin, Ohio, assist in regular classroom teaching in both grade and high schools, serve as guides for visitors, assist teachers in grading papers and making out report cards, present assembly programs, and hold regular meetings to study the teacher profession.[12]

Clubs are frequently organized to develop hobbies or special interests. Junior high school students in Butler, Missouri, set

[8] Frances Becker, "Commercial Club with A Service," *Kansas Teacher,* 55 (April, 1947), p. 12.

[9] Cecil F. Bullock, "Conservation Activities at Roosevelt High School," *School Activities,* 17 (February, 1946), pp. 207-208.

[10] Catherine M. Cullimore, "A Radio Workshop Club," *The English Journal,* 37 (June, 1948), pp. 318-320.

[11] A. J. Orico, "School Club Gives Preview of Nursing," *Occupations,* 24 (December, 1945), pp. 156-157.

[12] Gene Anne Darmady, "How Our Future Teachers' Club Serves the School," *School Activities,* April, 1949, pp. 265-268.

up in a spare classroom a model railroad system, the "Happy Valley Line," made of equipment constructed for the most part in the homes of members.[13] The Junior Chess Association of Minneapolis, Minnesota, made up of representatives of chess clubs in several city schools, organized matches at the Minneapolis Chess and Checker rooms in the Lumber Exchange building.[14] The list could be extended almost without limit to describe activities representing all types of interests and hobbies.

Club meetings. Various practices regarding scheduling of clubs are followed in different schools. A large number of clubs may be scheduled at the same period so that students are forced to make choices on the theory that membership may in this way be controlled better. This is a questionable procedure since one purpose of clubs is to provide a variety of exploratory experiences. Clubs are sometimes scheduled during the time of a regular class period if the club is closely related to the class, if most of the members belong, and the teacher is the sponsor. Another plan is to scatter club meetings throughout the schedule so that students may plan programs accordingly at the beginning of the semester and participate in a club meeting during a free period. Clubs are also scheduled after school and even at night.

Much of the success of a club depends upon the interest and enthusiasm of the sponsor as well as his ability to develop with the membership the notion that the organization should be an active one; most of the members should participate in every meeting doing things which students consider important. Care should be exercised to see that clubs are not self-perpetuating or exclusive insofar as membership is concerned, that small cliques do not run the organization, and that programs are planned within the limitations of facilities and time available for students and sponsors.

[13] Neal Neff, "Model Railroad Club," *School Activities,* 18 (March, 1947), pp. 212-213.

[14] Larry Samstad, "Junior Chess Association Sponsors Tournament," *School Activities,* 19 (September, 1947), p. 33.

COMMENCEMENT

Although increased emphasis upon adult education along with the fact that students remain in school longer tend to argue for greatly decreased emphasis upon commencement exercises, possibly even their elimination, these events are surrounded with so much public tradition that they will doubtless remain a part of the educational program for many years to come. The junior high school commencement, especially, should not be a formalized event.

New type commencements. The traditional high school commencement, with a guest speaker providing words of counsel to the graduates, is being replaced in many schools. Frequently a group of carefully trained students, selected for speaking ability rather than scholastic achievement, occupy the time formerly allotted the speaker and discuss topics of interest considering school experiences, the role of education, youth attitudes toward current issues, and the like. Both students and adults are usually favorably impressed when the school presents such a program rather than the traditional commencement exercise. It is important when student speakers are used that they be carefully selected and trained so that their performance will reflect credit upon the education they have received. Some persons, however, object to this type of program because it tends to permit only a few students to participate; to them a pageant or some other presentation including large numbers of the graduates is preferable.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association publishes each November a volume known as *The (year) Commencement Manual.* This book contains a summary of high school graduation programs including complete scripts of both traditional and "modernized" commencements. These descriptions, assembled each year by the national office of the organization, come from all sections of the country, representing a great variety of types of schools. Those planning a commencement program will find this book a valuable reference.

Costs of graduation. Costs to students in connection with commencement sometimes constitute a problem. Practices develop, such as girls each carrying a dozen roses, boys and girls dressing formally, giving expensive gifts to classmates and teachers, planning elaborate entertainments following graduation, and so on, that bring hardships to certain students. Such practices should be discouraged. Usually meetings involving parents, teachers, and the graduates are effective in developing educationally sound procedures. There is a growing tendency for graduates to rent caps and gowns. So long as this results in savings to students, this provision of uniform dress is probably desirable. Although gray colors for high school caps and gowns have been traditional, recently classes have been selecting caps and gowns of many different colors.

In general, those planning commencement activities should strive for simplicity, dignity, and quality of performance with less emphasis on expensive activities and those which tend to highlight a few individuals. Honors to individuals in the class should be handled at an assembly rather than at the commencement program. Lengthy student programs and eulogies by teachers, administrators, and board of education presidents should be avoided. The total amount of time for the program and awarding of diplomas should not exceed an hour and a half. One hour is probably a better length. Some schools hold a reception with light refreshments immediately after the commencement program so that parents and friends of the graduates may visit and meet members of the faculty, the board of education, and the parents of other graduates.

Contests

Each year a school is called upon to have students participate in many interscholastic and intramural contests in addition to those of an athletic nature described earlier in this chapter. Both commercial and non-commercial agencies, local, state, and national, eagerly seek the promotion of their programs by organizing all sorts of contests for high school stu-

dents. There is a belief that when high school students prepare speeches, write essays, draw cartoons, pictures, or posters, sing or play an instrument, and the like, these students will become interested in a given product or program sponsored by an organization. Usually the awards to the winners are small although not infrequently the amount of money involved becomes sizable. Winners are sometimes expected to travel great distances and spend considerable time participating in regional, state, and national contests. Usually the contests have some planned relationship to the educational program although frequently the timing of the contest is not particularly appropriate.

Obviously, schools need to be on the alert to protect young people from exploitation from outside groups, some of whom may apply considerable pressure of one type or another to secure the cooperation of school authorities. Some of these groups are quite sincere and believe they have the interests of students at heart; they simply need to be helped to see the total implications of their efforts.

Contest problems. In addition to the problems already pointed out, school authorities need be concerned with the ways in which sponsors and students spend their time and energy. Contest preparation nearly always requires certain students and their teachers to spend many hours in concentrated work. Since the time of teachers is always at a premium, school officials must always raise a question of values. Would the time a band instructor spends on contest numbers be better spent in teaching more young persons to play instruments? Would the time spent in practicing the speaker or team be better spent supervising improving of discussion techniques for larger numbers of students? There is also the danger that teachers in their zeal to win contests, thereby achieving a certain amount of prestige, may be tempted to write the speeches or essays themselves, or at least, put so much teacher effort into the production that it ceases to be student work.

Those who argue in favor of contests point out the motivating features of competition. Students frequently do work

harder when there is some ulterior motive in the form of reward. Doubtless, students also have experiences and make contacts while participating in contests that would be denied if such events were not held.

There should be established in each school a faculty-student committee on contests. Faculty members should represent all departments. When a request for contest participation comes to the school, all of the pertinent data should be placed in the hands of the committee. The committee should first ascertain, in the case of interscholastic contests, that the event has been approved by the state or national committee of the Secondary School Principals Association, which has set up these committees in an effort to eliminate undesirable contests. The local contest committee will then need to make a decision either to reject or approve participation. This decision should be made on the basis of predetermined policies, locally conceived, probably similar to those described in the preceding chapter of this book. If the contest is approved, the committee should recommend to the appropriate department ways in which the contest might be managed and evaluated. At the close of the contest, a complete report should be filed with the committee.

There are several advantages in having a contest committee. Such a committee may make recommendations to the board of education regarding contest participation. Principals or individual department heads are spared the responsibility of making one-person decisions and thus possibly being subjected to criticism by outside interests; it is much more difficult to bring pressure on a committee than on an individual. Moreover, a committee composed of representative students and faculty members from all departments is likely to recognize wider implications of contest participation than any one person.

HOMEROOMS

Homerooms do not actually constitute an extracurricular activity, but their organization occupies such a fundamental place in the operation of activities that a discussion of the sub-

ject would be incomplete if homerooms were omitted from consideration. The homeroom is basically a method of accounting for and guiding pupils as well as a means of facilitating the administration of the school.

In many schools the homeroom organization serves as the veritable hub of the activities program. Many all-school events are organized on a homeroom basis. Announcements pertaining to activities, contests and drives, intramural athletic and non-athletic contests, and social activities are examples of all-school programs that frequently utilize the homeroom organization. Students in individual homerooms, of course, often conduct activities themselves. Homeroom parties may be held for members of a single homeroom or the group may entertain some other homeroom. Student officers and committees are elected or appointed to carry on discussions and other business of the homeroom. Efforts should be made to spread such leadership and service activities as widely as possible so that over a period of time all students may benefit from these experiences. The homeroom sponsor should make sure that students receive training in each of these activities.

From the standpoint of extracurricular activity participation there is no "best" way to constitute homerooms. Each of the many types of homeroom organizations, e. g., by sex, grade level, interest group, or a combination of these would have certain advantages and disadvantages for carrying forward the programs mentioned in the preceding paragraph. When the homeroom organization in a school is being planned or evaluated, consideration should be given the relationship of the organization to the activities program, and the relationship of the homeroom to the student government organization.

HONORARIES

The largest secondary school organization designed to honor students of outstanding achievement is the National Honor Society, organized by the Department of Secondary School Principals in 1921. At present there are more than 8,310 senior high school chapters with over 1,450,000 members, as well as

550 chapters and 750,000 members in the National Junior Honor Society.[15] Fifteen per cent of the students in the graduating class of a senior high school may be elected to membership in the National Honor Society. These students, who must come from the upper one-third of the class scholastically, must also possess demonstrated qualities of leadership, character, and service. The selection is usually made on the basis of a secret vote by the faculty.

Students are ordinarily elected during the junior and senior years of high school, or in the case of the Junior Honor Society, during the ninth grade. Students elected receive a standard certificate of membership and a pin. Many schools hold elaborate all-school assemblies at which the newly elected members are inducted into the organization and the purposes of the organization are explained so that students who are not members may be informed regarding desirable traits of scholarship, leadership, character, and service.

The honor society may be a valuable part of the educational program, especially if the organization has a program of service activities. In some schools members of the organization serve as tutors to students who are having scholastic difficulties. Members also assist in guidance programs by acting as big brothers or sisters to younger students who may be having minor difficulties of one sort or another. Other organizations assume responsibilities in connection with assembly programs, career days, college days, serve as teacher or office assistants, and assist in many other ways. It seems that an organization composed of the most capable students in the school should conduct a significant program of service activities.

Honor society difficulties. Problems have sometimes arisen in connection with the selection of members. Some schools have used a system of student advisory voting in advance of faculty decisions. Other schools, sensing difficulties in evaluating leadership, character, and service, have made the selections almost entirely on the basis of scholarship, selecting

automatically the upper 15 per cent of the class unless there was some definite reason for eliminating one or more persons. In such a case, the selection went below the 15 per cent mark just enough to include a number equal to those who were eliminated. Such a system is, of course, not in harmony with the spirit of the regulations of the National Honor Society. Those who argue in favor of placing the selection almost exclusively on a scholastic basis point out that leadership, character, and service bring other awards to students, but that in no place in the school is scholastic excellence *per se* rewarded.

There have been honorary organizations other than the National Honor Society. Chief among these are the National Athletic Honor Society, National Forensic League, and National Thespians. None of these has attained the status of the National Honor Society in terms of number of chapters and members. Local schools have also developed independent honoraries.

Special awards frequently are provided by organizations not connected with the school. Although these awards are usually given to individuals, sometimes specified groups of students become eligible. Patriotic organizations make available citizenship awards. Local service clubs or women's organizations institute honoraries for citizenship, service, or leadership. As in the case of participation in contests, the school should have a committee, possibly the same committee, study the educational implications of all proposals for honoring individual students or groups. Recommendations should be made to the board of education regarding general policies to be followed by the school.

Music

In many schools music activities have been curricularized, and credit is given towards graduation for membership in school instrumental and vocal music groups and classes. Much time, however, is spent even in those schools in activities outside regular class periods. In addition to school bands, orches-

tras, and glee clubs, there are appreciation clubs, dance bands, operettas and operas, folk singing groups, harmonica and other special instrument clubs, drum and bugle corps, and many other types of special interest groups. Even though credit is given for some phases of the music program, there will doubtless always be phases of the program that are definitely extracurricular in nature.

Recent developments. Most schools have undergone or are in the process of developing a considerably changed point of view with respect to music. Once viewed as a subject for the talented few, music is now seen in a broadened perspective so that music experiences are being provided for larger numbers. All persons listen to many hours of music each year, especially by means of radio, television, and motion pictures, and many persons sing, if in no other place, in the bathtub. Music programs should be planned for the masses as well as for the *talented few. Music instructors more and more recognize that* folk and so-called popular music has a place in the program along with the semi-classical and classical music formerly given exclusive rights. Those who perform and those who appreciate music should learn the characteristics of good music regardless of type. Many more persons should be encouraged to be creative in various types of musical expression. Emphasis is also being given to learning to play instruments that have more possibilities of carry-over into adult life.

Costs to students participating in music activities constitute a problem requiring attention. Instruments, music and supplies, uniforms or special dress, and transportation to appearances are all expensive items. Moreover, practice time may prevent music students from working to earn money. Radio, phonographs, records, and tickets of admission are expense items of no small amount to those who wish to listen.

Personal ownership of instruments is desirable, assuming the instruments are ones that an individual may enjoy after formal school days are over. However, since some instruments have *relatively little utility as solo instruments for personal enjoyment,* and because some students cannot afford to buy instru-

ments, it is highly desirable that the school own as many instruments as possible. *School funds should also be used to defray many of the other expenses mentioned.* Unless policies of school subsidies are followed, music may be provided more for economically favored students while others who would enjoy similar opportunities may be barred.

The quality of school-owned music equipment should also be noted. The practice of using old, out-of-tune pianos, discarded radios and phonographs, worn out records, unwanted sheet music, and other forms of outmoded and outworn supplies or equipment, frequently given to the school by patrons who wish to clean out an attic or otherwise rid themselves of some item, should be discouraged.

Public performances. Individuals and organizations in music frequently receive invitations to perform in public. Such appearances provide the school with an opportunity to build good will in the community as well as provide community groups with valuable services. These programs should be planned to produce favorable attitudes on the part of the community. This does not mean that only the most talented students should perform. Adults are interested in efforts at improvization by individuals and groups as well as in quality; they recognize that the school is an educational institution and not a professional lyceum bureau. The music department should build such an attitude in the community if it does not exist.

Contest participation by musical organizations has sometimes resulted in interference with the development of the broad type of program described in the preceding paragraphs. When an individual or group is engaged in preparing for a contest, the major emphasis is likely to be on preparation of the number to be played in the contest. Moreover, contests frequently require that students travel distances at considerable cost to themselves or the school. Those in charge of the program should study carefully the principles of management suggested in the preceding chapter before asking the board of

education to adopt or continue a policy of extensive contest participation.

PUBLICATIONS

The principal school publications are the newspaper, magazine, yearbook, handbook, and programs for various student performances. Each of these has an important place in furnishing an outlet for creative activity by students and in providing a record of student activities. Each has a place in a well-balanced school program.

The school newspaper is usually the most frequently issued publication. A few schools publish daily newspapers, but most issue weekly, bi-monthly, or monthly publications. The form and quality of these papers vary from those that approximate commercial newspaper standards to simple mimeographed or otherwise duplicated single sheets of paper. Some are printed on school presses with linotyping and other operations done in school shops. Others are printed by a local commercial printer. An offset or other photographic method of reproduction is also used in some cases. Size varies from a newspaper full-page publication, through tabloid size, down to an $8\frac{1}{2}$" x 11" sheet.

Major purpose. A fundamental purpose of the school newspaper is to mirror the school in all its aspects so that student and adult readers may be kept informed regarding current school happenings. Thus, the newspaper should describe both class and extra-class activities, athletic and non-athletic events, interesting items about students, teachers and non-academic employees, information about the administration of the school, items concerning the school plant, meetings of the PTA, and, in fact, everything pertaining to the school program. Through its editorial policies, the school newspaper may be a constructive force for better schools in the community. It is highly desirable that free subscriptions to the newspaper be provided each member of the student body and that copies be taken home so that parents are kept informed about school activities. The school newspaper thus may play an important role in the public relations program of the school.

The school magazine. This type of publication is designed to provide an outlet for creative writing by students. Sometimes creative writing appears in the school newspaper in schools where there is no magazine, but it is usually considered desirable to utilize the newspaper mainly for the presentation and discussion of news and the magazine for the more literary efforts of students. Magazines are usually published on a monthly, quarterly, or semester basis. Contents include poetry, essays, short stories, book reviews, and photography or art work. Materials for publication are selected by an editorial body comprised of students and faculty members. Although much of the material submitted to the magazine may come as a result of work done in the English department, all departments should be urged to make contributions. Materials published in the magazine may well serve as a basis for class discussions.

The school yearbook. The yearbook or annual is sometimes a controversial school publication. Some school teachers and administrators object to the relatively large amounts of time and money devoted to the yearbook and have tried various means of eliminating the publication. One alternative is to plan the *school newspaper's final issue of the year* as a senior issue, containing pictures of the graduates, historical sketches, class will, prophesy, and other material of interest to graduates, their parents, and friends. Experience in many schools as well as some research studies have shown that students do not always agree with the notion of abandoning or changing fundamentally the school yearbook.[16] The annual serves as a souvenir book for students and provides a history of school activities for the year. As such it is considered highly valuable by students.

The principal objection to school annuals is based on excessive costs and the ways in which students attempt to finance the publication. Costly features of yearbooks include high quality paper, engraving, and padded, embossed covers. Each of these items, of course, might be reduced in cost if certain

[16] J. R. Shannon and Charles Zimmerman, "High School Graduates' Estimates of their High School Annuals," *School Review*, XL (January, 1932), pp. 55-60.

changes were made. Various photographic processes of reproducing copy greatly reduce printing costs by eliminating engraving. Ordinary tagboard covers may be substituted for the padded covers. Students will doubtless be disappointed when the changes suggested are first proposed, but if the alternative must be the complete abandonment of the yearbook, opinions may be altered.

Improvements in the content of yearbooks are constantly being made. Taking a cue from the popular picture magazines, students have written copy to go with pictures to tell more vividly the story of the school year. Annuals are also organized to highlight points of emphasis in the school during the year. For example, the Waukegan, Illinois, Township High School yearbook recently was organized around the theme, "Meeting the Imperative Needs of Youth." Each of the ten youth needs as described in the publication, *Education for All American Youth*,[17] was listed and the activities·of the school, both curricular and extracurricular, during the year were discussed in the frame of reference of youth needs. Other yearbook staffs use a theme for the year, such as "Education for Worthy Use of Leisure Time," and show by picture and word how the school attempted to meet that objective. Obviously these efforts aid in making the yearbook a better organized volume, one which can be of value to a program of public relations.

Student handbooks. These volumes are published by the school in an effort to assist new students in becoming acquainted with school opportunities and procedures as well as to review these things for students previously enrolled. Some of the handbooks are used as a basic reference in orientation courses for first year students. Handbooks are made in a variety of sizes, from pocket size to the 8½" x 11" size convenient for student notebooks. The handbooks may be mimeographed, lithographed, or printed. They are usually issued annually although in some schools a supplement is issued annually and the complete book revised every three to five years.

17 *Education for All American Youth,* Educational Policies Commission. (Washington: National Education Association, 1944), pp. ix, 421.

are prevented from receiving the advantages of the publication. If a school project is educationally desirable, participation should be equally available to all persons.

Solicitation of commercial advertising is only defensible if the advertisers may expect to receive benefits comparable to those they secure from advertising in non-school media. On that basis, probably three publications are justified in seeking financial support through paid advertisements: the school newspaper, the school magazine, and some programs of public performances. Merchants rightfully regard an advertisement in a school yearbook as a donation rather than an advertisement.

Regarding other methods of securing financial support, it does not seem advisable that students engage in all sorts of money-making schemes unrelated to the activity in which they are engaged. The inevitable conclusion, as stated in the preceding chapter, is that if an activity is educationally desirable, and it seems that student publications are, there must be financial support from tax funds as is the case with other aspects of the educational program.

SOCIAL AND RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Parties, dances, teas, noon-time activities and the like, form a very important part of the program of a modern secondary school. Teaching opportunities in these experiences are significant. Students need assistance in learning how to plan and organize social activities, how to conduct themselves at such activities, and how to judge results so that future improvements may be made. Possibilities of adult carry-over are nowhere greater than in connection with school social activities if they are properly managed.

Most schools find it advisable to have a student-faculty social committee to adopt policies with respect to social activities, make a schedule of events, secure a well-balanced program, assist organizations in planning events, suggest training programs in homerooms and classes, and evaluate the program.

Such a committee should be one of the functions of the student council. At least one faculty member should be given time to serve as executive officer of the committee.

Parties and dances. These events vary from simple parties in the lower junior high school grades to formal dances, such as the prom, in the upper grades of the senior high school. One of the problems facing those planning social events is to provide a sufficiently varied type of program that will interest all students. Something should be going on during the entire evening from the time the first students arrive until the time the party or dance must close. Games and entertainment should be provided for those who do not dance. Much may be done prior to a party or dance to teach students the games and dances that will be a part of the event. When it was discovered, for example, in the Port Washington, New York, High School that only a minority of students were coming to dances (a minority consisting largely of students who had attended a dancing school), a program of compulsory square dancing was introduced in co-educational gym classes. Much improvement in attendance and enjoyment at school parties was an immediate result.[18] In advance of social events schools also teach students to play card games and engage in party activities.

School policies relating to parties and dances need to be carefully determined in advance. Standards for invitations, dress, decorations, chaperones, pay of orchestras, opening and closing hours, and cleaning the rooms after the party are a few of the details that need to be carefully considered for each event in line with general policies developed by the social committee. General emphasis should be on simplicity, economy, and good taste so that a school may be able to offer a more comprehensive program of activities in an educationally sound manner.

Teas and luncheons also provide opportunities for teaching students desirable social activities. Schools are being equipped

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[18] Leonore May Foelzenbach, "Ice-breaker. Compulsory Square Dancing," *The Clearing House,* 22 (January, 1948), pp. 357-358.

with social rooms, at times called social laboratories, where students may entertain each other and adults. Frequently these rooms are a part of the home economics classroom area. Students plan and conduct teas and special luncheons for parents, PTA, or other student and adult organizations.

Students in many communities have cooperated with adults in establishing "hang-outs" as a part of providing community recreational opportunities for youth. A room in a YMCA, a vacant house, a store building, a school, or in some other available place is equipped with snack bars, coke machines, juke boxes, and card tables. Students are admitted free when identification cards are shown. The students in the Lenzinger High School, Hawthorne, California, have a $35,000 "Club Gunga Din," constructed largely by student labor after school hours and on Saturdays. A total of 1,300 memberships have been sold at one dollar per year.[19] Although students in most schools engage in less ambitious undertakings, the planning and management of a student hang-out or youth center provide a wholesome learning experience.

Noon hour activities. In many schools large numbers of students remain at school during the lunch period. Problems of a disciplinary nature sometimes arise. One alternative is to schedule such a short lunch period that little free time is available between classes. What seems to be a more defensible educational procedure is to provide a longer lunch period with a program of organized activities. The literature is replete with examples of noon-time activities. Community singing, movies, dancing, intramural sports, club meetings, hobby groups, speech activities, conversational areas, and free reading in the library are a few of the activities most frequently provided. Whatever activities are provided, there should be careful management so that participation is an educative experience.

SPEECH

Dramatics, debating, discussion groups, radio presentations,

[19] Inez Macaulay, "Club Gunga Din," *National Education Association Journal*, 36 (March, 1947), pp. 212-213.

and speech contests are types of speech activities often found in secondary schools. Some of these activities have been curricularized and students receive credit toward graduation for participating in them. However, as is the ease with music activities, even when these activities are curricularized, many of the rehearsals and performances are outside the regular school day and become in effect extracurricular in nature.

School play. Everyone likes to act. Opportunities on a broad scale should be provided for students who wish to participate in dramatics. Although it may be desirable to have a carefully selected group in an advanced dramatics club or class, opportunities should also be provided for those who wish to learn. Short plays for assemblies, activity meetings, noon-time entertainment, and for PTA and other community meetings should be a part of the program as well as the more formal class plays and other evening presentations. Students should rotate in different phases of dramatics, including acting, ticket sales and business, properties, lighting, costuming, and make-up, so that all have experiences in a wide variety of the tasks essential in play production. Secondary school students should not become specialists in only one phase of the program. Such experiences are especially important if the carry-over possibilities of dramatics into adult life are to be realized to the fullest extent.[20]

Formalized debating is no longer as important an activity as it used to be, but most large schools have interscholastic teams. A desirable emphasis is that which is focusing attention more upon extemporaneous speaking, panel discussions, symposia, and the like. The Junior Town Meeting idea has gained acceptance in many places. Such efforts are designed to encourage large numbers of students to participate in the discussion of controversial issues, an essential phase of citizenship in a democracy. Formalized debating is satisfactory as one aspect of this total program, but the school which limits activity to that provided by interscholastic debate teams is sponsoring an unnecessarily limited program.

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[20] Hugh W. Gillis (editor), "Dramatics in the Secondary School," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 33 (December, 1949), pp. 1-170.

Radio and television. Radio, and in many areas television, now provides a stimulating medium for speech activities. Many schools now operate their own FM or AM radio stations or occupy a regularly scheduled period on local commercial stations. Many kinds of programs are provided, some that are purely entertaining and of interest primarily to youth audiences, and others of a more serious nature designed for adult listeners. All types have a place in a broad program.

Speech contests of several kinds are also found in schools. The practice of students' memorizing an oration, humorous selection, or dramatic reading, then receiving training from a speech teacher, and competing in contests is disappearing. What appears to be a more desirable experience is one in which students learn to think for themselves. Some speech contests combine a prepared speech with an extemporaneous one. Contests entirely of the extemporaneous type are held in which students draw subjects for speeches immediately before the contest. Usually the general nature of the subjects is chosen in advance. Other speech contests may involve verse speaking choirs and one-act play groups. Some contests are sponsored by a college or university with local, district, and state elimination contests. The principles of management for such affairs were discussed in the preceding chapter.

Student talent shows. These performances constitute another phase of speech activities. Music is usually included in these events. An example of such an activity is the annual Follies in the Lincoln High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, where literally hundreds of students participate in planning, creating, designing, criticizing, presenting, and evaluating a performance that culminates and summarizes the activity program of the school for the year.[21] Similar productions are found in many schools. Students enjoy these events very much.

Some schools provide listings of student talent in what amounts to a casting office. Speakers' Bureaus have also been established. Adult groups recognize the effectiveness of young speakers on many topics. The speakers themselves gain valu-

21 Irene L. Edwards and Marselette Huttenhow, "Our High School Follies," *School Activities,* 20 (September, 1948), pp. 14-16.

able experience through appearances before community groups. Such an activity illustrates the importance of service to school and community as one purpose of the program.

Special emphasis should be given, especially in connection with speech activities, to providing opportunities for the less talented to participate. Relatively few students are blessed with "golden tongues," yet all engage in communication. All must learn to discuss the issues of the day. This requires much emphasis on training for participation in group discussions in organization meetings both inside and outside the school. Although primary responsibility for such training should be assumed by the English or speech classes of the school, opportunities should also be provided in the extracurricular speech program. Beginning groups in dramatics, discussion, extemporaneous speaking, and radio would provide such opportunities.

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT

One of the significant developments in American secondary schools has been student participation in management. As schools were changed from authoritarian to democratic orientation, it was only natural that the opinions of students should be systematically sought and responsibilities for certain activities delegated to them. The purposes of student participation as given by those responsible for its encouragement include almost all aspects of the purposes of education. Brogue and Jacobson, in a study of 361 widely scattered student councils, found the purpose most frequently mentioned was to allow pupils to participate in or manage extracurricular affairs.[22] Other purposes were: to develop student responsibility, initiative, and leadership, promote student-faculty relations, furnish citizenship training, promote general welfare, aid in the internal administration of the school, provide for pupil expression, and furnish a working model of government.

[22] Ellen B. Brogue and Paul B. Jacobson, *Student Council Handbook*, Bulletin No. 59, National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, March, 1940, pp. 19-23.

Many types of organizations have been devised to achieve these purposes of student participation in management. The simplest form is a student committee appointed or elected to perform a single function with the understanding that the life of the group is limited to the time required to complete the assigned task. Such a simple organization has often been the first step in the development of a more systematic or highly organized plan of student participation.

In some schools, on the other hand, student government is relatively complex. One form, based on city government plans, includes mayor, aldermen, elected and appointed officials, and ward and precinct organizations. In other schools the organization is modeled after the state or national government with senate and house of representatives, supreme court, an an executive. Distinctions are sometimes made on the federal basis of rights assigned to the state and national levels.[23] The important consideration is not necessarily the form of organization but rather that the organization be effective in meeting the needs in a given school situation. Carefully conceived purposes in the local setting should govern the type of organization to be developed.

The goal of any system of student participation in management should be that every student in school feels that he has an appropriate voice in the development of policies that are recommended for adoption by the faculty, administration, and board of education of the school. Students must learn, of course, that many voices and considerations other than their own go into the development of policies; that is a fundamental learning in functional democracy. However, students must have a feeling that their opinions are considered, and that each student has a share in the determination of student body opinions. A student council violates these principles if it serves as a rubber stamp for the faculty and administration, as a con-

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[23] For a more complete description of different types of student council organization as well as activities, see *Student Council Handbook*, (Washington: National Association of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1945), and also the annual *Student Council Bulletins* of the same organization.

venient way to get certain undesirable tasks done around the school, or is organized in such a complex manner that only the voices of a small, central group really seem to count.

It is interesting to walk in the corridor of a strange school and ask students picked at random such questions as who their student council representatives are, what policies are now being discussed, what groups to which they belong are discussing these policies, and how will the student council decide what the opinions of the student body are. The implications of these questions are obvious. All too frequently, the results *of such an inquiry reveal ineffectiveness in the organizational structure of student participation or in the manner it functions.*

Policy making. There should be concern whether or not students actually are participating in policy making. An interesting and often revealing study may be made to show the extent of student involvement. An analysis is made of decisions implying policy making in the school over, for example, a five-year period. A chart is made for each year with a classification of decisions on one side of the chart and the names of persons or groups making decisions or creating policy on the other. Such concerns as grades, report cards, social events, curriculum content, and the like, would be listed on the vertical side of the chart. The horizontal side would list students, teachers, administrators, and other groups that make policy decisions. Appropriate files are then examined to see what decisions have been made. Such files include minutes of faculty meetings, minutes of student council meetings, letters and bulletins of the administration, board of education minutes, and so on. Check marks are placed in the appropriate squares on the chart to show the nature of the decision and who made it. On the chart for each year, totals may be drawn to show how many decisions were made by each of the groups and what kinds of decisions they were. *It will be apparent who or what group makes most of the decisions creating new or changed policies.* By making charts covering a number of years, it is possible to observe trends. Do students actually participate in the management of the school?

Student courts. Questions are sometimes raised concerning the extent to which students should discipline each other. Some schools have developed comparatively elaborate student courts. An effort is made to duplicate many aspects of adult law enforcement with arrests, trials by jury, and fines and penalties. Other schools have designed "cafeteria courts" where students are assumed to be guilty and graded penalties are given out automatically, with students having a right of appeal to a faculty sponsor. Hall monitors enforce legislation adopted by the student council. Penalties include work about the school, detention room time, and even minor monetary assessments. Some of these court systems apparently work well; others have largely failed and been discontinued.

Doubtless many local factors are influential in determining the extent to which students should participate in the management of school discipline. In general, it does not appear wise to permit a large degree of student control over disciplinary cases. Disciplinary problems are symptomatic of adjustment difficulties, either on the part of individuals or groups, and should receive the careful attention of trained guidance workers. Even if a student cafeteria court is developed, the relationships between the court and the guidance functionaries of the school should be very close and direct.

Tours

Three examples may serve to illustrate this phase of extracurricular activity. Twenty-two students of Spanish from the Hinsdale, Illinois, High School recently traveled by train and air to Mexico during a spring vacation. Accompanied by their instructor and one chaperone, the students spoke Spanish and joined a group of Mexican students in touring the country.[24]

Seniors of the Elgin, Texas, High School took a 22-day tour of 17 states and Washington, D. C. Traveling in a school bus and carrying bedding and cots, they slept many nights in high school gymnasiums. They received assistance from student

[24]Naidene Coy, "Students of Spanish Spend Spring Vacation in Mexico," *School Activities,* 20 (September, 1948), p. 31.

groups along the way.[25] A hosteling tour was taken by students from the Newtown High School, New York City, to Canada during the first two weeks in July. Part of the trip was made by boat and train.[26]

Tour costs. Of course, this list of examples might be extended. These tours are largely extracurricular in nature although there are certain obvious relationships to regular school subjects. Usually efforts are made to conduct the tours so that the expenses to individual students are kept low. The trips planned are ones which students might not normally take. That there are educational opportunities as well as recreational advantages is obvious.

Policies vary with respect to how the tours are financed. Sometimes a senior class uses funds accumulated from social events, sales of magazine subscriptions, school play receipts, and so forth, partially or completely to offset the charges. The same might be true of a club or other group. Sometimes a sponsor merely makes the arrangements and those students go who can afford the tours. Those in charge must always weigh the potential gains of a tour against the costs in student and faculty time, energy, and money. Doubtless some trips constitute too ambitious an undertaking.

Out-of-School Experiences

There are many types of out-of-school experiences. Some of these may be termed work experiences. Others are associated with social service in a settlement or neighborhood home. Religious groups provide athletic, club, social, and educational activities. Organizations such as the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, and others, sponsor active programs. Service Clubs and women's clubs also sponsor activities for young people. There are music, art, dancing, and speech lessons and clubs. Many communities have youth social clubs of

[25] L. Maude Hall, "Seeing the United States from A School Bus," *School Activities,* 18 (March, 1947), pp. 205-206

[26] Roland C. Geist, "Let's Go Hosteling This Summer," *High Points,* 29 (June, 1947), pp. 64-66.

one type or another, sometimes associated with a Country Club, or other adult group. National groups also have youth programs. It is difficult to give an exhaustive list of the many types of out-of-school activities. Students spend considerable time and energy in participating in such programs.

Relationship to extracurricular activities. Possibly these out-of-school phases of student life have no place in a chapter devoted to extracurricular activities. These experiences are significant, however, in the growth and development of secondary school youth; they are usually not related to any of the regular subjects of the school. Moreover, the out-of-school experiences bear a definite relationship to extracurricular activities insofar as counseling is concerned. A student whose participation in school extracurricular activities is very limited may be receiving comparable training as a result of out-of-school experiences. On the other hand, those whose out-of-school experiences are rich and plentiful should perhaps have a lighter school load in both curricular and extracurricular activities.

School workers should take the point of view that the out-of-school experiences of youth are significant. Records of work experience should be kept. Contacts should be made with employers and supervisors to ascertain how an individual is progressing. Records of participation in various types of programs of out-of-school organizations should also be maintained and information gathered regarding the quality of participation. Bulletins describing out-of-school opportunities should be prepared. Plans should be made with students at all times, and especially prior to vacation periods, regarding utilization of these opportunities. Periodic stock taking should also be a phase of the program. The practices followed in the Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois, with respect to out-of-school experiences are worth noting. The program in that school has included all of the suggestions listed. The results have been very gratifying.[27] Certainly those in charge of planning educa-

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[27] Paul R. Pierce, *Developing A High School Curriculum*, (New York: American Book Company, 1942), pp. 199-201, 350-359.

tional programs for youth must not ignore out-of-school experiences of students.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. Tabulate for any given school the assembly programs held during any one year. How might the assembly programs have been improved?
2. There are many interesting topics in connection with athletics which might be discussed by a panel. Among these topics are:
   A. Does emphasis on interscholastic athletics detract or aid the development of an adequate intramural athletic program?
   B. Should girls participate in interscholastic athletics?
   C. Should junior high school boys participate in interscholastic athletics?
   D. What should be the maximum number of games in different sports?
   E. How large should be the seating capacity of a gymnasium in a given size school?
   F. What awards should be given outstanding performers in interscholastic athletics?
   G. How much time should a coach spend in coaching a varsity team in a given sport during a season?
3. High school fraternities and sororities are generally regarded by educators and others as undesirable; in many states they are forbidden by law. What are the best methods of preventing the development of fraternities and sororities in high schools and what appropriate substitutes should be developed?
4. Many schools still provide for the traditional commencement with a guest speaker. What arguments and proposals would you use in helping members of the senior class, their parents, the faculty, and members of the community decide that a new-type commencement, such as is described in this chapter, would be more desirable?
5. What are the principal arguments for and against non-athletic interscholastic contests? Should all of these contests be abolished as advocated by some educators?
6. Is the provision of an honor society, along with special awards for scholastic achievement, a necessary motivation for superior study, or should all such organizations and awards be abolished?
7. The school yearbook is considered by many principals and teachers a controversial extracurricular activity. Is it possible to develop a yearbook without encountering some of the objections frequently mentioned?

8. Collect several student handbooks from different schools. Compare and analyze their content. How may student handbooks be improved in order to serve desirable functions?
9. Some writers advocate the abolition of all formal dances in high school because of the cost to students involved. Be prepared to defend your point of view on this question.
10. What, if any, should be the relationships between the student government in the school and the board of education?
11. A very interesting and worthwhile project for members of the class or a faculty group is to analyze participation in policy making as described in this chapter. *Is policy making actually shared? Who makes most of the policies?*
12. To what extent should schools assume responsibility for the out-of-school experiences of their students?

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12

The Pupil-Personnel Program

Franklin R. Zeran

"The aim of all education is to help men and women to live fuller and happier lives in adjustment with their changing environment, to develop the best elements in their own culture, and to achieve the social and economic progress which will enable them to take their place in the modern world and to live together in peace."[1] Hence, if the end result of education is well adjusted individuals — economic, social, emotional, and civic — then it is the right of all individuals within a democratic society to be provided with those services as they go through school which will best assist them in attaining these ends. These pupil-personnel services should assist each individual in knowing and using those facts about himself and the world so that he may live and make a living to the best advantage to himself and society.

PUPIL-PERSONNEL SERVICE DEFINED

The keystone of the school program is guidance — personal assistance to individual boys and girls in making their plans and decisions about careers, education, employment, and all sorts

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[1] UNESCO, Fundamental Education — description and programme (Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Publication No. 383, 1949), p. 9.

of personal problems.[2] The terms guidance and pupil-personnel services are used interchangeably.

Guidance is not a mechanical process whereby counselors and teachers sort out boys and girls as a grading machine sorts apples — this one to stay on the farm, that one to work in an airplane factory, this one to be a teacher, that one to run the local garage. Guidance is rather the high art of helping boys and girls to plan their own actions wisely, in the full light of all the facts they can muster about themselves and about the world in which they will work and live.

Warters[3] indicates that pupil-personnel service has for its primary objective the optimum personal development of the individual. In order to aid him in attaining this objective, the personnel worker must help him to understand himself and his problems, to make good use of his personal and environmental resources, and to choose and plan wisely in order that he may deal successfully with his problems and make satisfactory adjustments.

The Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the U.S. Office of Education defines guidance as "the process of acquainting the individual with various ways in which he may discover, and use, his natural endowment, in addition to special training available from any source, so that he may live, and make a living, to the best advantage of himself and society."[4]

Myers[5] believes that "pupil-personnel work consists of those activities of a school or school system whose controlling purpose is to bring each pupil of the community into the educational environment of the schools in such condition and under such circumstances as will enable him to obtain the maximum of the desired development from his environment."

[2] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944), pp. 39-40.

[3] Jane Warters, *High School Personnel Work Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946).

[4] Layton Hawkins, Harry Jager, Giles Buck, *Occupational Information and Guidance* (Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education), Vocational Division Bulletin No. 204, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No 1, 1939, p. 4.

[5] George E. Myers, *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941), p. 56-57.

Regardless of definitions, the pupil-personnel program must be predicated upon the needs of the individuals who are to be served. This means the pupil-personnel program can never be imposed upon a school or school system, can never become static, and must be continuous. Neither size nor location of schools may be used as reasons to rule out an organized program of pupil-personnel services, especially when they are needed to "learn Mary so that we may teach her." If we believe in individual differences and that we teach individuals and not subject matter, then we must use the tools provided by the pupil-personnel services to gain this end.

Development of the Guidance Movement

Plato in *The Republic* indicates that the personnel services in his time were limited to the vocational aspects even though the general principle of individual differences were even recognized.

Well, when is a man likely to succeed best? When he divides his exertions among many trades, or when he devotes himself entirely to one? When he devotes himself to one. No two persons are born alike but each differs from the other in individual endowments, one being suited for one thing and another for another, and all things will be provided in superior quality and quantities and with greatest ease when each man works at a single occupation and in accordance with his natural gifts.[6]

Richards, in 1881, published a book entitled "Vocophy" in which he attempted to establish a system to enable a person to find the most fitting pursuit in which he could reap the greatest success that is possible for him individually to attain.

The Twentieth Century

Compartmentalization of the individual, 1908-1938. The period 1908-1938 may well be though of as a period of chaos in the pupil-personnel movement. There was no unification of concepts and as a result the term "guidance" meant practically anything and everything. People talked about vocational, educational, moral, recreational, social, ethical, and even divine

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[6] Arthur F. Payne, *Organization of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1925), pp. 8-10.

guidance. Little wonder that school administrators became so confused that they scurried for cover when approached to "put in a guidance expert."

However, the vocational guidance movement does have a clearly defined history; Frank Parsons can be thought of as the "father" of the movement. In his one and only report on May 1, 1908, which he made as Director of the Vocation Bureau, Boston, Massachusetts, he used the term "vocational guidance"; this is the first known recorded use of the term. He also recommended that work similar to that which he was doing in Boston should become a part of the public school system in every community. This movement took on national proportions when in 1910 a national conference dealing specifically with vocational guidance was held in Boston. In 1913 at the third national conference in Grand Rapids, Michigan, the National Vocational Guidance Association was organized and it is still the main organization for school guidance workers. Acceptance by school systems, however, was a slow process until the late 1930's.

The term "moral guidance" came into being in 1912 when Jesse Davis gave a paper on "Vocational and Moral Guidance through English Composition." Credit for setting up the distinction between vocational guidance and educational guidance seems to belong to Truman Kelly, whose doctor's dissertation on Educational Guidance was published in 1914. Since then, in rapid succession have come such identifying adjectives to the word "guidance" as civic, social, health, leadership, religious, recreational, and ethical. There was, however, no general agreement on what constituted a total program of pupil-personnel services which recognized the "whole child."

A unified concept, 1938 to the present time. In October, 1938, Commissioner Studebaker of the United States Office of Education issued the now famous Circular Letter 2107. This Circular Letter, addressed to Chief State School Officers, State Executive Officers, and Directors of Vocational Education, had as its subject the inauguration of a program of Occupational Information and Guidance in the United States Office of Edu-

cation. The Occupational Information and Guidance Service was incorporated in the Division of Vocational Education in the United States Office of Education. The use of federal teacher training funds was approved for developing similar services at the state level in each of the states. As soon as a state made the necessary changes in its plans it could use federal funds to employ a State Supervisor of Occupational Information and Guidance.

Now, for the first time, there was a central organization which was in a position to develop a unified concept of personnel services with the "whole child" as the focal point. Here was an organization which was strategically located at the national and state levels to exert the leadership which was badly needed.

Keeping in mind the "whole child" there has emerged since 1938 a group of services which have been deemed essential in a pupil-personnel program which will meet the needs of the "whole child." These services are:

1. The analysis of the individual
2. Information
   a. Occupational
   b. Educational
   c. Referral
3. Counseling
4. Placement
5. Follow-up of the school-leaver

Realizing that all students come to school with certain abilities, aptitudes, limitations, attitudes, and interests, and having as the end goal of education well-adjusted individuals, it behooves all schools to utilize these pupil-personnel services to gain this end. The five areas of services mentioned above will assist in making available to the community and the pupils a program of services that will identify and develop the optimum man.

THE FIVE AREAS OF A PROGRAM OF PUPIL-PERSONNEL SERVICES

1. *Analysis of the individual.* Ruch and Segel [7] indicate that

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[7] Giles Ruch and David Segel, *Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory*, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 202, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 2 (Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education, 1940), p. v.

no matter how broadly or how narrowly the function of pupil-personnel work is conceived, there is general agreement that the analysis of the individual is basic to his general educational, social, emotional, and occupational adjustment. Pupil-personnel service, therefore, tends to be effective to the degree that one can draw up for each individual a balance sheet upon which can be recorded in objective terms the strengths, and weaknesses, the peaks and valleys, of his physical, mental, and social capacities, whether these be matters of his inheritance or matters of his experiences, knowledges, and skills. It should be possible from these data to "strike a trial balance" for the individual at any time.

Such a balance sheet is called by various names — the cumulative record, the personal inventory, and the individual inventory.[74] Regardless of what it is called it must be a growing, continuous, permanent record which follows the individual from school entrance, throughout his school career, and ultimately on to his employer. This is essential because if we are to understand this student as an individual it is necessary to have a record of his development over a period of years. Without this record of his development along educational, mental, physical, social, recreational, and occupational lines one cannot truly know him. The record is essentially an array of those facts about the student which distinguish him as an individual. We might well call this record a cumulative individual inventory.

To be of value this record must be cumulative, as complete as possible, and based on facts and not opinions. To nullify the value of this record one needs only to be sporadic in entering data or to put in opinions. A record form itself does not guarantee that it will have only the truth recorded, that anything will be entered upon it, or that it will be used.

Since there is always a danger of including so many items in the inventory that significant basic facts will be lost, one needs to decide whether an item is essential. A good way to do is to scrutinize each item in the light of the contribution it will make toward the diagnosis of the pupil's aptitudes, abilities, limita-

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[74] See Michigan Cumulative Record Folder in Appendix.

tions, interests, and attitudes. The information believed to be of value for pupil-personnel purposes and which should be recorded systematically on the cumulative individual inventory includes the following:

Family and cultural background. Facts most commonly called for about the family and cultural background include occupations of father and mother, numbers of brothers and sisters, nationality or race of parents, education of father and mother, number and relationships of other adults living in the household, marital status of parents, home surroundings, home atmosphere, neighborhood conditions, amusements, and use of leisure time.

Physical and medical history. Physical, medical, and dental examinations should be made annually and the results made a part of the personal inventory. Measurements of height, weight, and records of infections and contagious diseases should be recorded. Other recordings should be made of items such as eyesight, hearing, color blindness, heart conditions, hernias, respiratory weaknesses, and absences from school.

Marks in school subjects. Marks in school subjects are important elements in pupil-personnel work. Because school marks are many times more than a simple rating of achievement but include items related to personality factors, they contain elements related to success not always measured by tests. However, a succession of low marks in a single subject indicates that the individual has not been au caliver. The predictive value of an item is increased when data on that item are gathered over a period of years. Further evidences, of course, are necessary to indicate the reasons.

Test scores. The use of tests has many times been over-rated. This is because some people are prone to forget that the only real value derived from testing is not in how many tests are given but in the proper interpretation of the test results. Tests of scholastic aptitude, achievement, or specific aptitudes, as well as interest and personality inventories are all useful when the results are properly interpreted. Uses to which tests may be put include:

a) Analysis and appraisal of the individual as he is, in order to present a profile of his abilities and limitations.
b) Prediction of the probable development and success to be attained by the individual in certain specific fields.
c) Measurement of growth in given subjects and training.
d) Planning an educational program.
e) Making occupational choices.

In any event, it will be well to realize that the more one knows about an individual, the more supplementary test results become; the less

one knows about an individual, the more important tests results become. Furthermore, a score on a single test is not used as an adequate basis for counseling. Other data and additional test results should be obtained whenever possible; hence the value of the rest of the individual inventory.[8]

Extracurricular activities. The number and type of extracurricular activities of a pupil many times reflects both his interests and abilities. Many times one is able to identify the leaders and the followers as well as those who are just "joiners." Hobbies often give clues to "bents" in a given area.

Special talents. All evidences of special abilities and limitations as they are revealed by the educational profile, hobbies, work-experiences, interests, and actual performance attested to by the anecdotal method should be noted.

In the analysis of the individual it is important to recognize that records are an aid to, but not a substitute for, a personal knowledge and understanding of the pupil by the teacher. Where the records are kept is of less significance than their availability for use by the teacher and pupil-personnel workers. Finally, the gathering of all these data is useless unless they are used intelligently for the benefit of the pupil in arriving at a solution to his problem.

2. *Informational services.* In a democracy it is the right of each individual to have the opportunity to earn a living in the area for which he is best fitted. Thus, again, it is necessary to know the individual as an individual — each with problems and needs peculiar to himself. At the same time an intimate knowledge is also needed of the world of work. With 40,023 defined titles of jobs[9] (22,028 defined jobs which are known by an additional 17,995 titles) now identified and listed, confusion can easily exist in the minds of the individual in trying to identify the job area for which he is best fitted.

a. Occupational and educational information. There are various techniques in practice to assist the individual in acquainting himself with the ways to make a living.

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[8] Franklin Zeran, and Galea Jones, "The Administrative Responsibility for On-the-Job Training of Pupil-Personnel Workers," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. October, 1947. *Bulletin No. 148*, pp. 10-11.

[9] *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, Definitions of Titles (2nd Ed.), Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1949), p. xi.

Courses in occupations. The name of the course varies: Occupations, Self-Appraisal and Careers, and Human Engineering. Usually the courses are required at a given grade level; at other times they are on an elective basis. In these courses, units are usually offered on understanding the school, understanding yourself, understanding occupations, understanding labor laws, understanding how to get and hold a job, and selecting an occupation for which you are best fitted. Various techniques include murals and displays of local industry, the making of recordings on various industries including a brief history of the company as well as its production methods and kinds of jobs available, and setting up a miniature corporation.

As a unit of regular classroom work. When occupational information is given as a unit within a course it is usually given in connection with a course in the social studies. However, every teacher is in a strategic position to enrich her course offering through instituting a unit on "occupations for which (English, mathematics, chemistry, or whatever this subject happens to be) is essential or desirable." Follow this with each individual selecting and reporting in class on one of the occupations. This is one way of motivation that has proven very helpful.

Visual aids. Visual aids include films, film-strips, posters, and displays such as are found in many libraries. When films and film-strips are used it is essential that pre-teaching take place so that the individuals are not seeing these projections only as part of a "show."

Community occupational survey. The school has an obligation to meet the needs of the community that supports it. It is only through a careful study of the community that one can ascertain the occupational levels of the community as well as the socio-economic life of its people. Community occupational surveys will provide pertinent data relative to the occupational distributions of those who have entered employment, the number employed, the approximate beginning salaries of workers, types pursued or needed, job satisfaction by

to take part in the training of youth in order that better
relations will exist when the pupil leaves school for a job
in the community. With employment as well as tech-
nological changes continually taking place, the school must
constantly be aware of and profit by that knowledge.
Furthermore, the school must see that this information
reaches the pupils who are to profit by it. Schools having
outstanding programs are Manitowoc, Wisconsin; New-
berg, Oregon; Franklin High School, Portland, Oregon;
and Chevy Chase, Maryland.

College day. College days have been in vogue for a
longer period of time than career days. College days, in
many places, grew out of administrative necessity. The
writer instituted a college day in order to keep 100 college
representatives from using up part of almost every school
day as each tried to talk to all seniors and juniors. In ex-
change for having all come on one day, the college repre-
sentatives were given information on each junior and
senior relative to the institution he was interested in, his
occupational choice, the percentile on his last scholastic
aptitude test, his rank in class, whether he had algebra and
plane geometry, and his own estimate as to the per cent of
the total college cost he would have to obtain through
working. However, their objectives are more nearly like a
career day on which only the professional or college trained
occupations are discussed. Schools having well worked out
programs are Appleton, Green Bay, and Manitowoc, Wis-
consin.

Plant visits. Plant visits or field trips can be made by
groups or individuals. The groups can be composed of
students having like interests (such as boys in Agricultural
Education classes visiting a dairy or cheese factory), or
of individuals with dissimilar interests (such as members
of an English class visiting a newspaper plant or a depart-
ment store). Many times individual pupils, because of the
intense interest, make plant visits as a follow-up to a career
day talk. Care must be exercised to prepare the group for
what it will see; after the visit it is again essential to review

the trip. Questions of legal liability of the teacher should be ascertained before making the trip. Furthermore, some one from the establishment should be the leader during the visit. Unless the trip is adequately prepared, there is danger that the pupils will "not see the forest because of the trees." Most schools in Michigan seem to utilize this practice to excellent advantage.

Work experience program. Work experience means many things to many persons. For example Weber holds that;

Work experience, then, is a term applied to one method of bringing reality into the program of the school. It is a means and method in the program of the school by which the learner actually produces useful goods or renders useful services through participation in socially desirable work activities in the community under real conditions. It can readily be seen that, conceived in this way, work experience offers many possibilities; it is likely to be educative; it is first-hand experience; it involves work or services; it is concerned with socially desirable activity; it is exploratory; it is real.[10]

Usually, the work experience program operates at the junior or senior year in the secondary school because the age level of those eligible for the program is found in these classes. Normally one-half day is spent on the job and the other half in school where related training is offered. Pay at the prevailing wages and school credit are earned by the participant. The jobs, employers, and participants are selected by a supervisor who is a member of the school staff and the participants are supervised by him while they are at work.

Equally important in selecting suitable participants is the selection of the right job. The job should present a continued need for mental application geared to the pupil's ability to profit by it. Some jobs of this type include helpers in various trades such as electricity, auto repair, radio repair, printing, and building. For the girls, jobs in the commercial field, such as stenographers, typists, bookkeepers, file clerks, office machine operators, and telephone

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[10] C. A. Weber, "The Value of Work Experience," Clifford Erickson (Ed.), *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), p. 355.

operators present valid learning opportunities. For pupils who are specializing in food and home economics, certain jobs in restaurants, in the diet kitchens of hospitals, or even in private households offer practical training. No school is so small nor so isolated that some work-experience program cannot be worked out. Schools having outstanding programs are Albany, Oregon; Los Angeles, California; Rochester, New York; Knoxville and Nashville, Tennessee; Butte, Montana; Des Moines, Iowa; Atlanta, Georgia; and Phoenix, Arizona.

b. Referral services. No school contains all of the services necessary to meet all the needs of all its pupils. In most cases this is true even of the communities which embrace these individuals and their families. To meet the needs of all, all available resources must be tapped and catalogued.

John needs glasses so that he may benefit from the educational experiences which society is offering him. His parents are not "poor enough" to receive aid from welfare organizations nor well off enough to purchase the glasses without upsetting their budget. To buy the glasses and pay only $1.00 a week would unbalance their budget, but they will not take charity. To whom in the community can the teacher turn for assistance? Under what conditions can he get the glasses? When is the individual to be contacted? These and other questions need to be answered objectively.

To whom does one turn for psychiatric assistance, aid to purchase clothing, and medical and dental assistance? Who will help in the case of pupils living in unsavory home conditions?

We are our brother's keepers, and amazingly enough, a 3 x 5 card file on all agencies, organizations, and others offering referral services will help us better to be "our brother's keepers."

3. Counseling. To be a productive member of society, an individual should be given assistance in the art of living, as well as in making a living.[11] This assistance should take the form of helping the individual identify, understand, and solve his problems by facing facts and using them in making plans. This objective is achieved through the counseling process.

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[11] Franklin R. Zeran, *Providing Educational Opportunities Through Trained Guidance Workers,* California Test Bureau, Educational Bulletin #19, 1950.

Counseling is both an art and a science. Jones stated that the process of counseling is as follows:

Counseling is primarily an individual matter and is more apt to be successful when conducted on this basis. From a fund of knowledge of educational and vocational opportunities, both locally and in the country at large, the counselor offers information, advice, and assistance to the individual, bearing in mind his particular interests, ability, and personal situation. This counsel should be a regular responsibility of all types of schools and colleges.[12]

Strang indicates that counseling is a face-to-face relationship in which growth occurs on the part of both counselor and student.[13]

Erickson holds that the counseling service is at the very heart of the guidance program. It represents the point at which the various guidance services converge on the pupils. No other part of the guidance program can succeed unless competent counseling is functioning. Through the counseling process, pupils are helped with their personal problems and aided in long-time planning. He further points out that counseling is the entire process of helping a person having problems and needs to achieve such desirable goals. Furthermore, interviewing is only one stage in the counseling process.[14]

Williamson and Foley state that counseling is a face-to-face situation in which, by reason of training, skill, or confidence vested in him by the other, one person helps the second person to face, perceive, clarify, solve, and resolve adjustment problems. It is a process which aids an individual to progress in personality growth and integration.[15]

Williamson[16] points out that counseling is both a supplementary and an alternative method of helping the individual

[12] Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1915), p. 268.

[13] Ruth Strang, *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946), p. 29.

[14] Clifford Erickson, *A Practical Handbook for School Counselors* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1949), pp. 49-50.

[15] E. G. Williamson, and J. D. Foley, *Counseling and Discipline* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949), p. 192.

[16] E. G. Williamson, *Counseling Adolescents* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), p. 18.

learn those things which facilitate adjustment, both immediate and remote, and also assist him to remove obstacles to his learning. Counseling is also a point of view, a philosophy of education, emphasizing human values and human development. Counseling is likewise a body of techniques or ways of helping young people grow up normally through assisted or guided learning. Counseling is not so much something added to what teachers do now, but rather a different way of doing what some teachers do now, directed to different goals and emphasizing human values.

Counseling is always personal since the process is organized around the peculiar needs of each individual. Counseling exists not only to assist the individual to help himself, but also to serve as an integrating force rather than a problem solving device. As such, the individual is always free to reject any assistance given, regardless of its excellence.

The gathering of information to assist in the analysis of the individual, the collection and dissemination of occupational and educational information, and the use of placement and follow-up services is for only one purpose: *to assist the individual to make wise choices.* As such, it must be seen that counseling, though a very important element, is only one phase of a total pupil-personnel service. It is therefore not correct to speak of counseling *and* pupil-personnel as one and the same.

Dunsmoor and Miller [17] list the following as aims of the counseling process:

1. To give the individual information on matters important to his success.
2. To get information about the individual which will be of help to him in solving his problems.
3. To establish a feeling of mutual understanding between pupil and teacher.
4. To help the individual work out a plan for solving his difficulties.
5. To help the individual know himself better — his attitudes,

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[17] Clarence C. Dunsmoor, and Leonard M. Miller, *Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers* (Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company, 1949), p. 133.

interests, abilities, aptitudes, limitations, and opportunities.
6. To encourage and develop special abilities and right attitudes.
7. To inspire successful endeavor toward attainment.
8. To assist the individual in planning for his educational and vocational choices.

Since the primary purpose of counseling is to assist the individual so that *he* can better solve *his own* problem, the following points may well be remembered:

Be a good listener. The individual has a problem and the counselor cannot help him if the individual is not given an opportunity to "talk out" his problem.

Help the individual find his problem as soon as possible. Nothing is gained by having the individual use the counselor as a crutch or the counseling room as a loafing place. The individual must be helped to find his problem and to face it, not run away from it.

Refer cases that need referral. Although the counselor should render all assistance possible, he is only human and there will be many types of assistance that others are better able to deal with. The job of the counselor here is to isolate, identify, and then handle only those types of problems for which he is best suited.

It would be fortunate if all faculty and staff members were equally able to do good counseling. However, because of experience, interest, personality, and training, some will be more able than others to counsel pupils. Specific training is necessary to ascertain and appraise facts and to develop competency in various methods of approaching the individual's problems. Recognition, however, must be given to the fact that although definite assignments as counselors must be made to certain faculty members, there is need in any organized program for cooperative action on the part of all faculty members if the counseling responsibilities are to be carried on.

Needs for assistance are where one discovers them.

John is 18 years old and in the 12th grade. He says he plans to go to college to be a chemist. His grades in mathematics from earliest grade school through plane geometry have hovered between 74 and 81. He has had a course in general science, and received a

grade of 87. He didn't take chemistry or physics because the teacher "doesn't like me." He is a slow reader, doesn't like to study, feels "tests are unfair," and has never been away from home. His parents are both college graduates; his father owns a small men's shop. What are John's needs and what would you do to help him?

Fanny is 16 and in the 11th grade. She is overweight, shy, has poor complexion, and lisps. She gets excellent grades in school. She is uncertain as to what she wants to do. Her clothes are of good make but never fit because of her "five by five" build. She belongs to no organizations, has never had a date, and causes her teachers no trouble in any way. What are Fanny's needs and what would you do to help her?

4. *Concentrate on placement.* Placement is the satisfactory adjustment of the individual to the next situation whether in school or on the job. Thus, each teacher becomes a placement officer insofar as her own class is concerned. The individual's possible attainments in the chemistry class must be predicated upon his abilities and needs. This is one of the many times when a "trial balance" of the individual's cumulative individual inventory is necessary in order to assist him in making a free choice. School marks, achievement test results, scholastic aptitude profiles, interest inventories, work experiences, hobbies, and anecdotal records all contribute to making decisions leading to the satisfactory adjustment of this individual.

The right of the individual to earn a living in a democracy carries with it the obligation that there be a close and desirable relationship between his aptitudes, abilities, attitudes, interests, and limitations, and his objectives — whether they be training or jobs.[18] If the individual has a right to expect that the school will assist in the acquiring of those skills and attitudes necessary for making satisfactory adjustments — socially and emotionally — then their adjustment to learning, training or working conditions cannot be ignored.

An individual's vocational choice, based upon a careful study of that individual's objective and its relation to his abilities, interests, and limitations, requires an intimate knowledge of both the individual and vocational opportunities. Cooperative action

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[18] Franklin R. Zeran, *Providing Educational Opportunities Through Trained Guidance Workers*, California Test Bureau, Educational Bulletin No. 19, 1950.

between the school and community agencies is essential if the interests of the individual are to be served.

5. *Follow-up the school-leavers.* Products of the school, whether they emerge as graduates or drop-outs, are embraced by the term "school-leavers." [19] The pupil-personnel program offers the follow-up study as its technique for evaluating these school-leavers.

The follow-up may well be utilized as the focal point in the development of a pupil-personnel program since the study of the problems and experiences of former pupils will provide pertinent data relative to the number of pupils entering and pursuing higher education, the occupational distributions of those who have entered employment, the number employed, the approximate beginning salaries of workers, the types of training pursued, the type and amount of supplementary training needed to hold the present position or to progress in it, and the training need to secure a job. The information thus secured is both objective and factual, as such its implication for pupil-personnel activities and the curriculum are practical and effective.

Follow-up studies of school-leavers may also become valuable as instruments of research, extensions of the individual *inventory aids* in determining pupil-personnel *services* to be offered school-leavers, and "guide posts" in school policy-making.

Research. To evaluate the effectiveness of the school curriculum in the light of the experiences of school-leavers; to evaluate the pupil-personnel services; and to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction.

Extension of the individual inventory. To provide a flow of continuous out-of-school data which would include plans and work experiences, further training, placement, and follow-up to be added to the in-school record.

Pupil-personnel services. To keep in touch with all

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[19] Royce E. Brewster, and Franklin R. Zeran, *Techniques of Follow-up of School-leavers.* California Test Bureau, Educational Bulletin No. 17, 1947. (Revision of U.S. Office of Education Misc. 3033.)

school-leavers for a definite period of time, for the purpose of:

1. Aiding them in making adjustments.
2. Securing additional training.
3. Forming closer ties between the school, the individual, and the community.

Policy-making. To justify changes in the school program — modify, extend, or expand the curriculum.

All school-leavers, both graduates and drop-outs, should be followed up through a continuous annual series to be made at intervals of 1-3-5-10 years for each group. This can be done by means of mailed questionnaires and/or through interviews carried on by members of the student body. Questions asked will depend upon the purpose of the follow-up survey.

If we are to subscribe to the policy of educational opportunities for all as an actual possibility instead of a theory, we are under obligation to offer such education as will fit the needs of the individual student.[20] If education is to meet the needs and abilities of the students, we must fit the school to the needs of each individual student rather than force the individual to fit the offerings of the school, however unsuitable these may be for either the pupil or the community. Thus, it is the responsibility of the school to evaluate and modify its program of offerings in the light of what happens to all who have enrolled, whether they be graduates or drop-outs. It is only through a continuing follow-up of its school leavers that the school is in a position to ascertain whether its products are marketable in an ever-changing consumer's market. Then, after accumulating the data, it is the obligation of the school to modify its program to turn out up-to-date products.

Study and Discussion

1. Define, in your own words, what pupil-personnel services mean to you.
2. In what ways will a knowledge of the psychology of individual

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[20] Franklin R. Zeran, *Providing Educational Opportunities Through Trained Guidance Workers,* California Test Bureau, Educational Bulletin No. 19, 1950.

differences be of assistance in providing pupil-personnel services?

2. Explain the differences in the concepts of the pupil-personnel movement during 1908-1933 as contrasted to the period 1933 to the present time.

3. Who is the head of the pupil-personnel services in your state? What is his title?

4. What are the relations of this individual to the local school counselors?

5. What are the five areas of a program of pupil-personnel services?

6. What is meant by the analysis of the individual?

7. What are the uses of tests? What limitations, if any, do they have?

8. Name and explain some of the many ways of providing occupational and educational information. With which of these have you actually come in contact?

9. What is a work-experience program?

10. What does referral service mean to you?

11. Define counseling and tell how it can be applied in a school situation.

12. Define placement and give examples.

13. What are the uses of the follow-up of school-leavers?

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13

Teacher Approaches
To the Pupil-Personnel Program

Franklin R. Zeran

If all students are to be assisted and all life-adjustment areas served, all staff members must participate in the program, not merely the specialists.[1] Recognition must be given to the fact that not all can do everything equally well. There are some phases that only those teachers who receive special training should do; there are some other services that only the specialists should render.

TEACHER DUTIES

Although it is true that beginning teachers are not usually employed as counselors, an individual preparing to teach should realize that his first obligation is to the students. Even though the contract calls for teaching English, social studies, and art, the teacher will teach individuals — individuals who are ever changing, ever different. The teacher cannot teach Johnny until he knows something about him. Today he things he knows him, but perhaps tomorrow he may be different. His hopes, fears, and anxieties are all part of the Johnny who comes to the English class. Every teacher, whether he is conscious

of the fact or not, has an important role to play in the pupil-personnel program.

The position of the classroom teacher is such that he can give valuable assistance to the pupil, particularly with regard to occupations related to his field — occupations for which that particular subject is necessary and those for which it is recommended. His function as a placement officer must not be overlooked. An individual preparing to teach should know that as a classroom teacher his responsibilities for the pupil-personnel program include: [2]

In the area of the cumulative individual inventory.

1. Assist in the compilation of the cumulative record.
2. Keep pupil's individual inventory up-to-date.
3. Have a thorough knowledge of every pupil in his group.
4. Furnish the counselor information concerning pupils.
5. Secure necessary information to aid in parent contacts.

In the phase of occupational and educational information.

1. Cooperate with school counselors in the dissemination of occupational and educational information.
2. Contribute occupational information from his own specialized field.
3. Stress, with careful regard for realistic conditions, the occupational value of subjects taught.
4. Provide developmental group activities in citizenship, leadership, and personality.
5. Explain the importance of traits of character and personality needed to become a successful worker.
6. Help the pupil to evaluate important outcomes of successful work in addition to salary.
7. Encourage the pupil to work up to capacity.
8. Assist in preparing assembly programs dealing with occupational and educational problems.
9. Interpret the vocational implications of school subjects and help pupils develop proper work attitudes.
10. Assist the counselor in arranging and carrying out occupational trips.
11. Assist in the development of poster materials, plays, and similar activities related to pupil-personnel services.

[2] *Proceedings of the 6th National Conference of State Supervisors of Occupational Information and Guidance* (Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents), Vocational Division Bulletin No. 235, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 14, 1945, pp. 48-49.

12. Encourage the use of visual and auditory aids.

In the field of counseling.

1. Be on the alert for interests, aptitudes, plans, and behavior patterns which the pupil's counselor should know about.
2. Direct to the counselor those individuals who need specialized help.
3. Serve on committees related to the pupil-personnel program.
4. Study and practice good interviewing and counseling procedures to make more effective any counseling that he may be asked to do.

Know your students as individuals. If a teacher is to become personally acquainted with each of his students, he should have the following information about them: [3]

1. The pupil's learning level or rate as indicated by:
   a. I.Q. or mental age scores on reliable tests of mental ability.
   b. Results of any achievement tests the student has taken, especially the more recent ones and any that are directly related to the subject concerned.
   c. Scores indicating rate and comprehension on tests of general ability to read.
   d. Scholastic record to date.
2. The student's subject strengths and weaknesses, likes and dislikes.
3. The student's major extracurricular interests, participation, and leadership.
4. The student's vocational and educational goals.
5. The nature and cause of any difficulty the student is experiencing in the work of the class.
6. Any physical handicap or health condition that may interfere with the progress of the student.
7. The home environment of the student, particularly if he is inclined to be a problem case.

Once this information has been synthesized it will then be the duty of the teacher to utilize it in his daily contacts with the student. Assignments and institutional procedures should certainly be adjusted to the needs of the individual as one of the outcomes of the analysis of the individual.

The teacher as a referral agent. The teacher is like the hub

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[3] Clarence C. Dunsmoor and Leonard M. Miller, *Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers* (Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company, 1949), pp. 53-54.

of a wheel from which radiate relationships with specialists, community agencies, and parents.[4] All these the teacher uses for the good of the student. Thus he supplements the work that he is able to do directly with individuals and with groups. In some cases, the coordinating center shifts from the teacher to another personnel worker in the school or in the community who, in turn, uses the teacher as one means through which a good adjustment may be affected.

The teacher and the testing program. Everything is measurable. In teaching, if we are to compare two individuals with one another or an individual's ability against what he achieves, we must have standards of measurement. As a result of this need, we have "standardized tests" that we use in pupil-personnel work.

Essential to good teaching is the knowledge of the individual to be taught. Aids to this knowledge result from:

a. Reading tests. What is the individual's rate of reading and what is his comprehension? These measurements should reveal not only the total results but also the results for the individual sections on science, social science, poetry, and literature. Is this individual able to interpret a paragraph? What vocabulary does he possess?

Any other test result obtained for the individual, whether scholastic aptitude or achievement, will depend upon the comprehension and rate of reading obtained in a reading test. This, then, is the first information to be secured by a classroom teacher.

Some good reading tests are the Iowa Silent Reading Test; SRA Reading Record; Lee-Clark Reading Test; Chicago Reading Tests; Diagnostic Reading Tests; Durrell-Sullivan Reading Achievement; and Gates Reading Survey.

b. Scholastic aptitude tests. These are usually called intelligence or I.Q. tests. However, since we also have mechanical, social, and other types of intelligence, the term "test of scholastic aptitude" is more nearly correct and hence we use

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[4] Ruth Strang, *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946), p. 105.

it here. The final result (103 I.Q., or 88th percentile, or 6th decile) is only a minor part of the picture. Since a scholastic aptitude test consists of word analogics, space perception, arithmetic reasoning, and so forth, it is essential that we know in which of these areas the individual ranks high, low, or average. The algebra teacher would be more concerned about the arithmetic section than would the English teacher. However, knowing that John and Harry rank equally in the arithmetic test is only part of the picture. For example, each had five problems correct, but John tried only the first five and got all five correct. Harry tried all twenty-five and got numbers 1, 5, 8, 15, and 25 correct. We now get a different insight into these two boys. The next job is to analyze each of the boys to see why John tried only the first five while Harry attempted so many more. Some widely used scholastic aptitude tests are the California Test of Mental Maturity, Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability, S.R.A. Primary Abilities, Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability, and American Council on Education Psychological Examinations.

c. *Achievement tests.* These tests are useful not only in revealing the grade level of the individual in the separate tests as well as the over-all battery but also in identifying the difficulty which the student is having. There may be as many as a dozen different reasons why individuals cannot add a four-digit column. The important thing is to know which of these are bothering this individual pupil and then to do something about remedying the situation.

Achievement tests should be used to compare Johnny with himself — his accomplishments against his abilities. Teachers should always ascertain whether these tests are valid for the local situation. That is, do the tests measure what the pupils have studied? If the test at the 8th grade measures certain items in arithmetic or science which have not been studied in the arithmetic or science classes, then a survey should be made to ascertain whether or not the items should be included in the course of study. Sometimes the timing of the tests is important insofar as coverage is concerned. Some of the better

known achievement tests are Progressive Achievement Tests; Metropolitan Achievement Tests; Stanford Achievement Tests; and Every Pupil Primary Achievement Test.

The important thing to remember about tests is that the value lies neither in giving the tests nor in knowing the end results, but rather in the interpretation of the results and the action taken.

The scattergram as a tool. As a placement officer the classroom teacher needs to know how well he is adapting his instruction and subject matter to the abilities of the individual pupil in his classes. Furthermore, he must know whether or not the pupil is working up to capacity. It is essential also to know the relationship between achievement, as indicated by grades, and scholastic ability, as indicated by a scholastic aptitude test

Scholastic Aptitude or I. Q.
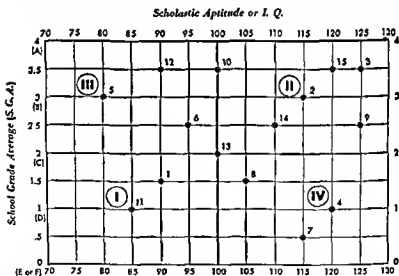
Numbers within the scattergram represent cases, *i.e.*, 1 is John who has a school grade average of 1.5 and an I.Q. of 90; 2 is Peter who has a school grade average of 3 and an I.Q. of 115.

Quadrants I and II are occupied by "expected cases." Quadrant III is occupied by "overachievers" — individuals whose S.G.A. is high in relation to low scholastic aptitude (I.Q.) results. Quadrant IV is occupied by "underachievers" — individuals whose S.G.A. is low in relation to high scholastic aptitude (I.Q.) results.

(mental ability or I.Q. test). A scattergram such as shown below can be used to portray this picture of a group.[5]

By using the scattergram, one can determine how many and who are in the quadrant of "over-achievers" and who are in the quadrant of "under-achievers." This knowledge is of little value, however, unless the teacher analyzes each of the cases.

First, of course, all these cases should be retested with another scholastic aptitude test, such as the California Test of Mental Maturity, Otis Self-Administering, or Henmon-Nelson. Then, to make the scattergram truly useful in pupil-personnel work, such questions as the following must be asked and answered:

Were cases 5, 12, and 6 over-achievers due to faulty scholastic aptitude test results (too low)? Were the study habits superior in some cases? Did interest in school subjects have anything to do with the school grade average or was it due to an "easy marker" in one subject?

Were cases 8, 7, and 4 under-achievers due to faulty scholastic test results (too high), vision, hearing, general health, lack of interest, lack of application, unhappy home conditions, or too much outside work? Is 8 usually in this category or has she just slipped down into it this month? How is she getting along with her teachers, classmates, and parents?

What does the Iowa Silent Reading Test or the Buswell Reading Test reveal regarding rate of reading and comprehension? What results are revealed from an achievement test, such as the Progressive?

If a scattergram is carefully made and analyzed, it should prove a useful tool in pupil-personnel services.

The sociogram as a tool. Students are gregarious individuals. The class room, the halls, the play grounds, the gymnasium, the cafeteria, and the auditorium all serve to bring the pupils together in groups. As soon as groups are formed there is group interaction and reaction. This interaction and reaction affects

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[5] Franklin R. Zeran, "Scattergrams as Tools in Pupil-Personnel Services," *Vocational Education News* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.), Vol. I, Number 4, May, 1918, p. 10.

not only the group but the individual members of the group as well. The charting of this interaction is called a sociogram.

The sociogram presents a picture of group relations at a given time and under specified conditions. For example, if each of the members of a group were asked to name two individuals in the room who were their best friends, the result would differ from that obtained by allowing each member to select two individuals in the school who were his best friends. Furthermore, different results might be obtained if each member of the group were asked to name two individuals in the room with whom he would like to serve on a clean-up committee. Furthermore, a different result would undoubtedly be obtained in answer to the same questions if a month elapsed between the questioning, or if a third or fourth choice were added.

The students should always be asked questions that are of some concern to them. The charting is then able to chart the results. The question "Name your two best friends in this room" might appear like this when charted.

In our daily teaching we become so busy that the quiet, unassuming individual who causes us no trouble is apt to become
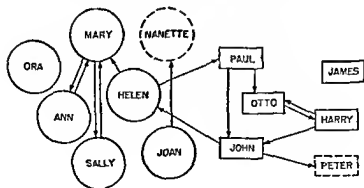
LEGEND:

○ Girl present at time question asked

◯ Girl absent at time question asked

☐ Boy present at time question asked

⟦ ⟧ Boy absent at time question asked

⟺ Reciprocal relation

→ Unilateral relation

Isolate - No lines to or from an individual who was present

overlooked entirely or thought of as a "nice pupil." However, the isolates Ora and James need our attention because there must be a reason why they have named no one as their best friends and no one has named either of them as his best friend. Then, too, Joan differs from Heleo, and the Mary-Ann, aod Mary-Sally combination differs from the Mary-Ann, Ann-Helen, and Helen-Mary arrangement.

The sociogram is relatively easy to make and is an important device in actually seeing group interaction. Mere observation will not give this relationship regardless of how well the teacher knows the pupils.

Orientation for the students. Every classroom teacher cannot have the opportunity, eveo if he wished it, to visit with all the students who intend to enter the various classes. However, each teacher can easily write from 200-300 words on what is covered in his own subject, whether it is English 3, Latin 1, Algebra 1, Shorthand 1, or Drafting 7, from which a short list should be derived showing the occupations for which this subject is either essential or desirable. These sheets can then be duplicated and made available to all pupils either in the homerooms or the "sending schools."

Follow-up of the school-leaver. The classroom teacher should be concerned with knowing the answers to these basic questions. "How well do my students measure up to the needs of employers, institutions of higher learning, and other training institutions, aod to society as a whole?" "Am I adapting my course content to the needs of these groups?" "If I do want to know the answers to these questions, is there a tool that I can use to provide me with detailed, objective data?"

The tool that has proven useful in supplying detailed, objective data is the follow-up survey. Since a follow-up survey can provide answers to multiple objectives, there is obviously little reason for each teacher to make individual surveys. As a result, the individual classroom teacher can be more effective by becoming a cooperating member of a committee making the survey of school-leavers and their employers.

Occupational value of the subject taught. It is an obligation

of all good teachers to stress, with careful regard to realistic conditions, the occupational value of the subjects that they teach. Bacher and Berkowitz list major school subjects and occupations that are related to these subjects.[6] For example, the teacher of physics can start with the following list and have members of his class develop it still further:

Acoustician	Electrical Engineer
Astronomer	Electrical Repairman
Civil Engineer	Electrical Tester
Electrician	Optician
Electro-chemist	Petroleum Engineer
Electroplater	Physicist
Electrotherapist	Radio Engineer
Geologist	Radio Operator
Lineman	Radio Repairman
Mechanical Engineer	Roentgenologist
Metallurgist	Teacher
Meteorologist	X-Ray Technician

However, the good teacher does not stop here; he has members of the class select an occupation, gather information about it, and present their findings to the class. A helpful outline would include:

1. Description of the occupation, according to the Dictionary of Occupational Titles.
2. Examples of articles made or services performed.
3. Number in the occupation on a national and local basis.
4. Working conditions, wages, hours, surroundings, whether or not it is seasonal, trend of employment, and hazards.
5. Age of entrance.
6. General educational requirements.
7. School subjects that are essential and desirable.
8. Hobbies that have a relationship to the occupation.
9. Special licenses, bonds, or tests to be passed.
10. How to get started in the occupation.

Students should be assisted to see that there are no such

* Otto R. Bacher, and George J. Berkowitz, *School Courses and Related Careers* (Chicago, Illinois, Science Research Associates, 1945).

things as over-all advantages and disadvantages in any occupation. The occupation should be viewed realistically and decisions made in the light of how an individual is affected by a given occupation. Through this classroom approach, the teacher can help the pupil in his search for an occupational field for which he is best adapted.

Using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles as an aid. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* consists of three separate books, Volume I, Volume II, and Part IV. Although teachers should be familiar with all three books, it is only Part IV with which they need be concerned. Part IV is entitled "Entry Occupational Classification." It is valuable since it is intended for the classification of individuals for entry into work in which they have not acquired fully qualifying knowledges or skills through work experience or specific vocational training. Since it describes fields of work and not specific occupations, Part IV is especially valuable for assisting secondary school pupils to select work for which they are best fitted.

All teachers in their daily contacts with their students have an opportunity to observe which ones seem adept at artistic, musical, and literary work; entertainment; public service; technical, managerial, clerical, and public contact work. Some teachers have an opportunity to observe which of their students are adept at personal service, farming, forestry, machine repairing, machine operating, machine tending, and graphic art work. Every class offers an observant teacher an opportunity to study students in the light of their specific aptitudes, abilities, interests, attitudes, and limitations. With this knowledge the teacher is in a position to "match men and jobs." Part IV of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles will offer assistance in this matching process.

The teacher and the home visit. If teachers are to understand the individual student during school hours it is essential that they know something about his home and his family life. Visits to the homes of all, not just those who seem to be "problem children," will pay dividends in "learning about Johnny." The visits should serve as a means of becoming acquainted with

the parents and not as a source of conversation around the bridge table.

In many communities parents never have had the teachers come to their home unless it was because their child had broken school laws or rules. Yet, these same parents could give considerable assistance to the teacher in understanding this individual. By the same token, teachers can assist parents in understanding their own children.

For example, Jim has been sickly ever since he was born. His brothers and sisters have waited on him, given in to his every whim, and had to be quiet around the house in order "not to disturb Jim." As Jim grew older, he had someone carry his books. He never did chores because of his health. Jim learned to take but never give. He "enjoyed ill health" and used it to get his way at home. After such conditioning, it is little wonder that Jim has never been a cooperating member of his class.

All homes visited should serve as sources of information for the cumulative individual inventory. A record should be kept of home visits. All teachers should become acquainted with the homes and parents of their pupils through the reports of the teacher who made this particular visit.

The teacher and the work experience program. More and more the school is turning to the community to bring realism into the classroom. In many instances the school itself has little in its curriculum to interest all the children of all the people in the community. A program that allows the school to reach out into the community and place its pupils in socially acceptable jobs is called a work experience program. The development of skills, attitudes, and habits as well as the exploratory possibilities are all values to be derived from such a program.

The classroom teacher enters this picture because, as Legg, Jessen, and Proffitt point out, selection of students for inclusion in any kind of controlled school-and-work program is usually recognized as one of the most important aspects to be considered in the setting up and the continuing of such a program.[7]

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[7] Caroline E. Legg, Carl A. Jessen, Moris M. Proffitt, *School and Work Programs* (Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1917, No. 9), p. 17.

During the course of the study mentioned above, educators in many cities were convinced that in selecting pupils for participation in part-time work programs, careful consideration should be given to individual needs and abilities.

BUTTE, MONTANA

Pupils over sixteen years of age are placed in stores, offices, and plants in the local community for a part of the school day. The employer accepts them as regular members of his working force and usually pays a small wage in order to cement the employer-employee attitude. Under the direction of trained teachers, a part of the day is spent in school where instruction is given in subjects directly related to job duties and responsibilities. On the job, the trainee secures practical experience and uncovers many problems relating to that field and individual help is given in their solution. Each trainee is recognized as an individual problem and his school course is mapped out for the sole purpose of increasing his efficiency and making him more employable. The coordinator is responsible for the development of course outlines for each one. Instruction in workmen's compensation, employer-employee relations, employment responsibility, personal efficiency, personal appearance, public relations, and occupational requirements form a part of the daily class procedure.

Job placements are selected that require a training period of two years. The program is not designed to make skilled workers in any type of specialized employment in the occupation but rather to give the trainee as wide a field of experience as is possible. The job location is his laboratory and he progresses from one station to another as soon as he has picked up the fundamental knowledge and skill necessary for an intelligent understanding of the processes. On the job, the employer or his delegated supervisor serves as the teacher and, with the school representative, works out a schedule of processes and a progress chart that will enable him to obtain the widest possible experience. Two and one half credits are given for the course.

Des Moines, Iowa

The cooperative program has been operating since 1936 and now offers training in stenographic, general clerical, and bookkeeping work, and retailing. It is offered at the twelfth grade level only. The forenoons are spent in school where the student carries three subjects. A minimum of twenty hours per week are required on the job. Additional work on Saturdays or during vacation periods are optional with student and employer. The plan for credit is three hours per semester for in-school work and one credit for work experience.

Both the employer and the coordinator make monthly evaluating reports with regard to the work on the job. Evaluation is based upon performance, and also by personal judgment.

Students who participate in the cooperative program cannot participate in extracurricular activities to the same extent that other students may. However, they are not entirely barred as some such activities are scheduled for pre-school hours and also adjustments are sometimes made by the employer for special occasions. Although cooperative students are limited in this respect, they gain other values which are equally, if not more, important. It is pointed out that students who make other choices have their limitations; for example, the boy who plays football seldom participates in other activities.

Atlanta, Georgia

In the joint Vocational Educational Service there are a total of thirteen cooperative programs in which the schools work very closely with the State Department of Vocational Education in the fields of Trades and Industry and Distributive Education. There are more than 450 pupils and approximately 175 different firms in metropolitan Atlanta are allowing the schools to use their businesses as training laboratories.

The program is primarily set up for boys and girls sixteen years of age or over who will not go to college. They must have completed eight units of school work before being admitted to

the program. The student attends school in the morning and takes two regular high-school subjects plus one or two periods of related instruction. He goes out on the job for four hours a day in the afternoon.

The stated objectives of the program are (1) to give the student a high-school diploma plus one or two years of work experience in his chosen occupation, and (2) since the majority of boys and girls lose their first jobs because of bad social habits and lack of experience in getting along with their fellow workers, to give training designed to help eliminate these difficulties.

The program is supervised by a coordinator who is responsible for approximately thirty-five students. He coordinates the work experience with the proper adequate related instruction.

One unit of credit is given each year for his experience and one credit for the related instruction. These units have been approved by the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges.

Regular monthly reports of progress on the job are secured by the coordinators and rotation of job experiences are required in the schedule of work processes. Such an agreement is worked out and is signed by the employer, the student, and the coordinator.

The teacher and the pupil-personnel program. The classroom teacher is truly the eyes and ears of the pupil-personnel program. He is in a position to be the first to notice evidences of maladjustment, the first to learn of student interests and abilities, and he can be the first to locate the areas where the pupil-personnel services can be of greatest help.

Because of the evident importance of the teacher, it may be well for new teachers to think through these questions:

1. How well do I know my own strong and weak points?
2. Do I really like boys and girls well enough to know them as individuals?
3. *How well do I know each individual in my classes?*
4. Have I reorganized my subject and teaching in the light of what I know about my pupils?

5. How well do I cooperate with the administration, other teachers, the counselors, parents, and townspeople?

6. Do I try to solve as many pupil problems as possible through my subject?

7. Am I able to think of the boys and girls as individuals and not cases?

8. Am I a good listener?

9. Do I make the boys and girls feel that I am really interested in helping them?

10. Am I helping each individual know himself so he will be able to live and make a living to his own best advantage and that of society?

An affirmative answer to these and similar questions must be forthcoming if the pupil-personnel program is to succeed. Unless the program does succeed there will be little likelihood of a citizenry of well-adjusted individuals.

Core programs and personnel services. One of the most frequently mentioned values of a core or "common learnings" program is that the classroom teacher will have a group of students for two or three consecutive periods. Thus, she has longer periods of time spent with fewer students and she has the opportunity to become better acquainted with them. No form of curriculum arrangement can guarantee satisfactory guidance of the individual, but the "common learnings" program makes it easier for the classroom teacher to be of help in counselling the individual student. It is quite generally assumed that better guidance results when a core program is successfully put into practice.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. Why is the classroom teacher important to the program of pupil-personnel services?

2. What are some of the responsibilities of the classroom teacher for the pupil-personnel program?

3. What is meant by "knowing your students as individuals?"

4. Name the different types of tests and tell the uses of each type.

5. a) Make a scattergram of a homeroom group in a secondary school or of a grade at the elementary school level.

b) Discuss the cases of the over-achievers and the under-achievers with the teachers.

c) Hand in a report which includes information obtained in a) and b).

6. Make a sociogram of the same group utilized in 5. Turn in the sociogram with interpretations.

7. What are the uses of a sociogram?

8. Hand in a list of those occupations for which your major teaching field is essential and also desirable.

9. How could you use Part IV of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles in a classroom situation?

10. Develop orientation materials which would be useful to students entering high school for the first time.

11. Illustrate ways in which the teacher serves as a referral agent.

12. What is a "problem case?"

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Witty, Paul (editor), *The Gifted Child*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1951.

prepared to grapple with the insistent demands of the twentieth century.

Signs of maladjustment. Evidence from many sources indicates that the conventional high school largely fails to meet the life-adjustment needs of society.[1] Nor is such failure new. Twice in the past two centuries a new type of secondary school was developed to meet emergent needs, became the predominant kind of secondary school, and then, failing to meet emerging challenges of its own changing times, found itself supplanted as a type by a more vigorous successor (see chapter 7). Such was the fate of the old Latin grammar school and the academy. The conventional high school of today could be the third casualty. This historic sequence is suggested in Figure A in Chapter 8.

Progressive transformation to meet new social demands is any institution's only alternative to decline, decay, and disappearance. Today there are clear indications that the high school as we have known it is undergoing such transformation. It is now developing, however slowly and reluctantly, into a new type-form: the community high school.

THE COMMUNITY HIGH SCHOOL

The community school movement, now well under way, is the most significant development of our generation in the field of education. Since the turn of the century our dominant professional interest, and increasingly our daily school practice, has moved from preoccupation with academic subject matter as preparation for college to one of concern for successful living through school and community education. We are more and

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[1] For documentation consult Herbert Spencer, *Education* (New York: Appleton and Company, 1908); Homer P. Rainey and others, *How Fare American Youth?* (New York: D Appleton Company, 1937), Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1938); Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach* (Washington: The Council, 1940); Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth* (Washington: Superintendent of Documents, 1948). All books referred to in the chapter are listed in the bibliography.

more aware that the high school *must consciously, continually, and directly relate its general education program to the basic processes and problems of living in its supporting community, region, nation, and world.* We agree that through extensive firsthand and vicarious experiences youth and adults alike must attain realistic understanding of our evolving civilization, establish defensible value standards and consequent positive attitudes toward contemporary events, and develop effective personal skills in democratic group enterprise for the common good. We know that otherwise the conventional high school cannot avoid *the indictment that as an institution it may go the way of its Latin grammar school and academy predecessors.*

What, then, is the nature of the community high school now developing? How does it differ from its immediate progenitor, the traditional high school? What are its purposes, program, procedures? *In answer to these serious queries some seven characteristics of the community school are now presented, discussed, and briefly illustrated.*

Purpose — The Community School Seeks as its Primary Purpose to Improve the Quality of Human Living.

The schools in all types of community — rural, town, and large city — must address themselves to the task of improving the level of community life in the areas which they serve.[2]

If secondary education is to serve our dynamic civilization it must itself become dynamic; it must develop a new social-civic purpose as its central goal. This requires that our high schools find their fundamental orientation in the enduring life needs of the whole person within his own community — a community whose daily interrelationships extend throughout the region, nation, world. This means that the basic function of the secondary school today *is to help improve the quality of human living in the area served by the school.* Because the school exists in the community, the people there should be better individuals, physically and emotionally healthy, tolerant

[2] *Schools for a New World* (Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1947), p. 220.

of those different from themselves, more competent workers, parents, and citizens. Inter-group relationships also should be improved as an immediate and direct result of the school's efforts, resulting in more efficient government, better labor relations, and lessened racial, religious, and cultural tensions.

a. Education for better living. The community school does not calmly assume, as did the traditional school of the past, that transmission of the western world's cultural heritage along with some civic and vocational training is its chief concern. Neither does the community school make personality development through free expression of individual interests its major goal as did many of the "progressive" or "child-centered" schools of the 1920's and the early 1930's. The vital significance of organized knowledge and of individual development is fully recognized by the emergent community high school (the best of both are integrated in its program), but primary emphasis always falls upon human needs as the major purpose.

This is obviously in sharp contrast to the conventional high school's continued devotion to subject matter learned in the name of "personal culture," "individual success," or even "mental discipline." Low standards of material and cultural living, mounting divorce and crime rates, the increasing extent of mental illness, crippling capital-labor struggles, dangerous inter-racial and inter-faith hostilities, growing international fears and conflicts — all such factors point toward one inescapable truth: that the modern school's basic and direct concern must be the education of better persons for better living in a better world.

Bordertown

Bordertown's high school is different. Through the years, slowly but steadily, its real function in the community was changed from that of college preparation for a few to that of life-preparation for all. Today nearly 40 per cent of its graduates do enter college, in contrast to less than 20 per cent in 1940, and nearly all of them make acceptable or superior college records. The other graduates who seek employment and an immediate adult role in community life find themselves far better equipped for those responsibilities than most parents in Bordertown had thought possible even a decade ago.

Every course in the curriculum, every unit in every course, every extracurricular activity is reviewed each year by an evaluation committee of students, teachers, supervisors, administrators, and representative lay people. This review process is designed to appraise the school's offerings in terms of one fundamental query: "What learnings must people develop to improve their own quality of living and that of Bordertown generally?"

Improved health. Awareness of the community's resources for safeguarding and improving health is accepted as one such essential learning. All high school students therefore visit and study local health agencies, hear expert speakers on community health problems and needs, survey health conditions in Bordertown, and carry forward town and county health improvement projects such as mosquito control, smoke abatement, nutrition demonstrations, well-baby clinics, blood-typing, and the like. Bordertown's high school students are not merely reading and talking about personal health, they are also doing something significant to improve both their own and their community's health — and in that *doing* they are really *learning*. Similar activities operate to meet vital life needs in such fields as family living, work competence, race prejudice, and intelligent buying. In Bordertown High School the actual test of every learning *activity is not its ancestry or prestige; it is solely its demonstrable contribution to more effective living conceived in broadly spiritual, cultural, ethical, and material terms.*[3]

Community resources — The Community School Utilizes the Community as a Laboratory for Learning through Living.

The community should be freely used as a laboratory for suitable pupil experiences under school supervision.[4]

Schooling cannot be realistic if it is confined to the four walls of the classroom, library, shop, or laboratory. If young people are to develop understandings, concerns, and skills essential to

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[3] Schools to improve the quality of living are described in Paul Hanna and research staff, *Youth Serves the Community;* William L. McClaren, *Selected Community School Programs in the South;* Clara M. Olson and Norman D. Fletcher, *Learn and Live;* and Samuel Everett (editor), *The Community School.*
[4] *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America* (Washington: National Education Association, 1944), p. 9.

the improvement of living they must have adequate opportunity for learning about living through extensive firsthand, problem-solving experiences with the significant realities of their physical, biological, and social environment.

Books and visual materials are highly important, but they alone are not sufficient to acquaint students with the processes and the problems of group living. That is why the community school builds "bridges" between school and community — two-way bridges on which students and adults alike study and serve the community by bringing the community into the school, and by taking the school into the community. Through well-planned study of local records, field trips, surveys, interviews, civic service projects, work experiences, school camping, extended field studies, and other such avenues of experience young people come to know their community and their region, nation, world. Factories and farms, museums and social agencies, union meetings and city council sessions — these as well as books, films, recordings, and the like are the raw materials out of which the community school program is built.

Direct experience. Thus, youths experience at firsthand the basic characteristics of modern society as epitomized in their own communities. They see for themselves how industries, courts, welfare agencies, and government offices operate. They talk with informed adults about job requirements, recreational needs, sex concerns, and youth problems generally. They work with adults on civic projects to improve community health, safety, beauty, culture, and citizenship. They use their community as a living laboratory for effective, challenging learning.

Midland

The biology, industrial arts, and vocational agriculture teachers in Midland have conducted occasional field trips for many years. Three years ago, however, the faculty as a whole made a comprehensive community survey to discover all local resources that could be of educational value. Findings were recorded on standardized cards and placed in a master file. From these cards a directory called *Midland's Resources* were compiled and given to every teacher. Then administrative arrangements were made whereby all com-

munity experiences sought by the school are cleared by one central person. This community survey, directory, and clearing house makes it easy for Midland teachers to locate and schedule a class speaker, group interview, field trip, or other community learning experience as to secure a book from the library.

Community resources. Within a year, teachers in Midland were making extensive use of *Midland's Resources.* When the mathematics class studies surveying the county surveyor comes to the school, explains his instruments and procedure, and takes the group with his crew to see the "why and how" of his work. Home-making teachers take their students to various markets to acquaint them with problems and techniques of economical purchasing. Foreign language teachers bring foreign-born residents to talk to classes about life in other countries. Many townspeople who have traveled abroad share their impressions with social studies classes. When the civics class studies the several types of city government, three members of the group interview Midland's city manager and report upon his work. A school camp gives members of the junior class two weeks work experience as they stock a stream with hatchery trout, begin to control erosion by planting seedling trees, and reforest burned-over mountain areas.

This year Midland High School secured 84 speakers, conducted 116 field trips, arranged 204 student interviews with local and visiting adults, carried on 9 different community improvement projects, and with its school camp proved how well Midland and its region could be used as a laboratory for effective learning.[5]

Community center — The Community School Makes the School Plant a Community Center.

Sound educational policy requires that public school properties be opened to public use outside of school hours, subject to such regulation as will safeguard the public interest.[6]

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[5] Techniques and case studies of community resource use are presented in Edward G. Olsen and others, *School and Community,* and in Edward G. Olsen (editor and compiler) *School and Community Programs.*

[6] *Social Services and the Schools* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission, The National Education Association, 1939), p. 61.

The community school is open for business 16 hours every weekday throughout the entire year. Its plant has been designed and constructed as an educational center to serve the manifold needs of adults as well as those of youth who are "in school." Such needs can never be met by a school whose doors are open only from 8 until 4 o'clock, Monday through Friday, September until June. The community school is a used school — used by adults as well as by adolescents, used evenings and daytimes, used summers and winters. It is the school of all the people, designed and used by them according to their needs.

Facilities needed. This school provides comfortable, home-like rooms and facilities where people can come together in informal neighborly fashion to study, work, and play. The school and its grounds are adequately lighted for evening use. Heating plant controls permit the heating of individual rooms or wings alone. Folding seats are plentiful, as is storage space for adults' materials and equipment. Parking space near the building is adequate and is lighted at night. Custodial care and maintenance are available whenever required.

Edgeton

In this small community the high school building is ablaze with light six and often seven nights a week. Adult meetings and other activities must often be scheduled weeks in advance, so great is the demand for public use of the school's fine facilities.

One night the auditorium was filled for a town meeting to hear a debate between opposing candidates for the county commissionership. The following evening a traveling college glee club presented a concert, and the next night 60 farmers gathered to discuss the formation of a soil conservation district. Two nights a week the school shops are reserved for the farm people. There, with the help of the vocational agriculture teacher, they repair machinery and plan crop rotation. Meanwhile their wives gather in the school kitchen to try out new recipes and advanced methods of cooking, canning, and preserving foods.

The science laboratories are used by a local adult science club, and the equipment in the extensive photographic laboratory is at the disposal of the town's camera club. In the Little Theater a group rehearses for a community play. The music rooms provide rehearsal

space for an adult chorus and for an amateur orchestra. Small groups
in other rooms work at ceramics, oil painting, leather tooling, and
similar crafts. The gymnasium, swimming pool, outdoor sports fields,
and indoor social room for dancing are all used by community
groups. Church groups often meet in the building on Sunday eve-
nings. Other organizations which have met in the Edgeton High
School this year include the Parent-Teachers Association, the 4-H
Club, Future Farmers of America, Veterans of Foreign Wars, Boy
Scouts, Chamber of Commerce, Toastmaster's Club, Red Cross,
Artificial Breeders Association, Baby Clinic, and the County Health
Council.[7]

*Curriculum — The Community School Organizes the Curricu-
lum around the Fundamental Processes and Problems of Living.*

Education must be conceived as broadly as life itself, as broadly
as democracy itself. The curriculum will be focused upon the culture
— its values, its conflicts, and its potentialities.[8]

The curriculum of the community school is focused upon
basic individual needs in their relation to the culture's values,
processes, problems, and possibilities. It deals directly with
the person in his total environment. That environment includes
his home, family relationships, activities, occupations, ideals,
and values. It includes also his physical and social community
in its interrelationships with the larger region, nation, world —
its fields of art, music, literature, religion, science, and the like;
its social trends and tensions, its pressures, taboos, and attrac-
tions.

Basic learnings. The community school centers its experience
curriculum in the processes and problems of human living, not
in departmentalized subject fields as is done in the conven-
tional high school. Believing that individual and group living
is best improved by realistic study of basic processes and direct
attack upon pressing problems, the curriculum is organized
directly around such persisting processes and related problems
of human living as using the natural environment, appreciating

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[7] The school as a community center is discussed by N. L. Engelhardt and
N. L. Engelhardt, Jr. in their *Planning the Community School.* Some program
possibilities of such a center are indicated in Edward G. Olsen (editor and
compiler), *School and Community Programs,* chapter 1.

[8] *Toward a New Curriculum* (Washington: Department of Supervision and
Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1944), pp. 180-181.

the past, adjusting to people, communicating ideas, making a living, sharing in citizenship, maintaining health, improving family living, securing education, meeting religous needs, enjoying beauty, engaging in recreation and so on. Each of these persisting processes is a major activity in every community today, just as it has always been throughout the history of man. These social processes, furthermore, are also fundamental activities of contemporary man in his regional, national, and worldwide relationships. Community school students thus investigate both the normal processes and the emergent problems of living for the past as well as the present, and for their own community in its ever-widening human relationships. Such a curriculum thus organizes for serious study both the warp and the woof of human relationships past and present.

Center City

Freshmen students in Center City High School concentrate on the study of life in their own community. Beginning by systematically surveying Center City's population, health, occupations, recreational needs, and the like, they then seek out historical origins and developments to relate the community's past with its present and probable future. Identifying major trends, social needs, and resources for improvement, students cooperatively investigate and contribute to community safety, beauty, conservation, health, culture, and leadership through planned learning projects. Such extended activities do not involve class scheduling problems since the entire afternoon of every school day is devoted to this "core" program. Mornings are reserved for the more conventional subjects required for college entrance or for specific industrial, commercial, agricultural, or homemaking preparation.

In the sophomore year the same pattern prevails, except that the learning sphere widens from the local community to include the entire geographic region. Direct learning through surveys, trips, and service projects is now considerably curtailed, though all sophomores are eligible for a 2500-mile, three-week study tour in school busses reserved for field study use. On this "long trip" the students with their teachers visit and study the region's historical sites, literary centers, scenic locations, farm lands, typical industries, government offices, and geographic and population characteristics. Constant comparison is made between Center City's social processes and

problems analyzed last year and those of the larger region. Resource speakers, motion pictures, and regional reports are extensively used throughout the year to help the students become thoroughly acquainted with the area in which most of them will continue to live, work, and be active citizens.

Similar comparative studies on national and world levels are carried out during the succeeding two years. Throughout this "core curriculum" program the interrelationships between past and present, between process and problem, and between immediate locality and wider areas are stressed. Emphasis is upon realistic understanding of social processes combined with an intelligent, cooperative attack upon problems.[9]

Lay participation — The Community School Includes Lay People in School Policy and Program Planning.

Lay participation in educational planning represents one of the most effective means of improving educational policy and lay understanding.[10]

If someone is expected to support a program, he must share the personal satisfaction involved in the development of that program's purposes, direction, and evaluation. This is the first principle of successful public relations, and it is one reason why the community school includes representative lay people as well as students, parents, and the professional staff in all of its basic program planning. A second reason, even more important in the long view, is that such school-community interaction on the planning level results in school programs actually better than those designed solely by the school. As the Metropolitan School Study Council has found,

Whenever schools have drawn the public into processes of planning, policy formulation, discovery of objectives, and methods to meet these objectives, such schools have been superior to what otherwise might have been expected.[11]

[9] Discussions of curriculum programs and problems will be found in the Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, Harold Spears, *The High School for Today*, and Hollis L. Caswell and Associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems.*

[10] *Public Action for Powerful Schools* (New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949), p. 22.

[11] *Public Action for Powerful Schools* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949), p 60.

Cooperative action. The community school is thus a community-wide enterprise. The community as a whole, not merely the Board of Education and the Parent-Teacher Association, feels that it has a stake in its school and shares responsibility for the school's success or failure. This feeling is both the effect and the cause of sustained lay participation in school policy planning. For lay adults as well as for students, such participation is an educative experience and this very experience is the best assurance of their continued interest and support. In the community school, its policies and broad program are cooperatively planned by civic, business, farm, labor, and professional leaders, by representatives from schools, churches, government, welfare, recreational, and other agencies, and sometimes even by political bosses, tavern keepers, and dance hall operators who, since they influence youth, should not necessarily be ignored when youth education is being planned.

The community school seeks to improve the quality of community living not only on the part of youth but also by all adults. This it does in part by enlisting both youth and adults in broad, continuous planning of fundamental school policy.

Cosmopolis

Cosmopolis, a fast-growing residential suburb of a large city, is still an independent school district. Under its school superintendent's vigorous leadership, most of the professional staff have taken part in a comprehensive child study and community study program during the past several years. Last year the school directors authorized a "Long-range School Planning Project" which soon sought and secured the active participation of over 400 lay citizens and nearly all members of the professional staff. The purpose was to focus both school and lay judgment upon such fundamental school-community problems as choice of sites for future school buildings, finance, improvement of the curriculum, and the need for an extensive recreation program.

A planning coordinator was first brought in and made a member of the professional staff. The services of a community school consultant were also secured from the state university. After appropriate publicity through the local press, radio, service clubs and other organizations, a questionnaire survey of public opinion concerning

the school system's program was made. By means of a simple check list, all residents of the community were asked to say what they liked and what they disliked about the job the schools were doing, what they thought were the most important problems facing the schools, and their opinions about the curricular and extracurricular offerings. Nearly 2,300 returns were received. A summary of these were made by the coordinator and presented first to teachers' meetings and then to over 30 lay organizations in the community. It was generally apparent that most residents were not really aware of the school's chief problems, but were eager to learn about them and to cooperate toward their solution. Most people were already friendly to the school.

The next step was to develop six working committees composed about equally of lay and professional people. This was done by listing the six major problem areas and asking each interested lay organization to designate six of its members to serve on these six committees. The teachers had their own choice of committee assignments, and none was pressured into joining any of them.

Each committee chose its own chairman. Four committees selected lay persons; two designated teachers. Each committee sub-divided its area of effort and organized sub-committees accordingly. Over a period of nearly a year, most of them held regular meetings to secure, interpret, and evaluate the community's educational plant, facilities, and program in terms of its long-range needs and desires. Arguments were sometimes loud and even bitter, but harmony of judgment developed as the project progressed. The final conclusions and recommendations of each committee were widely publicized and then handed to the school directors. Those gentlemen officially expressed their thanks for this community effort, and shortly afterward announced a Long-range Plan for Educational Development in Cosmopolis, based substantially upon the recommendations received.[12]

Community coordination — The Community School Leads in Community Coordination.

The community council appears to be the evolving pattern for securing coordinated effort among organizations engaged in providing specialized services for children and youth.[13]

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[12] For further discussion of lay participation see Helen Storen, *Laymen Help Plan the Curriculum*, and the Metropolitan School Study Council, *Public Action for Powerful Schools*. Useful materials may be secured from the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

[13] *American Education in the Postwar Period*, (Chicago. National Society for the Study of Education, University of Chicago Press, 1945) Part II, pp. 203-04.

Modern programs of education are built around the simple idea that the child is a whole being who is educated by his total experience — out of school as well as in it. The commonplace statement that "John Jones finished his education in 1940" is obviously absurd, implying as it does that Jones has learned nothing since then.

Equally evident is the fact that every experience of life educates the individual in some way. Broadly considered, movies and churches, homes and bowling alleys, comic books and automobiles, YMCAs and poolrooms, radios, newspapers, and school are all educative influences. Each one, through its particular impact upon the daily lives of many persons, shares in determining their values and standards, ideals and viewpoints, attitudes and outlooks. People always learn what they live, what they accept to act upon, what fits in with, but goes beyond, their previous experience. The educative process can therefore never be confined to the school or concentrated within school walls.

Role of the school. The school is society's chief formal agency for the education of children, youths, and adults. What, then, is its special responsibility as one among other educative agencies in the community? The answer is clear: the school's proper role within the total educative process is both residual and coordinative. In its residual role it is obligated to teach all those ideas, skills, appreciations, abilities, attitudes, and ideals which are essential to effective living and which are not actually acquired through non-school channels. In its coordinative role the school will lead other community agencies to develop planned, cooperative programs for the more effective and economical education and welfare of all people.

This implies that the community school will neither duplicate the desirable educational offerings generally available through other community agencies nor fail to utilize them to the fullest extent through leadership in coordinated community programs. It is abundantly clear that effective education for our times requires continuous and cooperative planning on the part of homes, churches, welfare agencies, service clubs, professional

groups, business associations, labor unions, veterans groups, women's clubs, and schools.

Community councils. In recent years the community coordinating council has been invented as an organizational device to make permanently possible the values inherent in continuous cooperation among organized community groups including the school. Community councils take various forms and names, but certain common characteristics are usually apparent: (a) *Purpose:* cooperative improvement of community welfare; (b) *Function:* advisory and planning, not administrative; (c) *Membership:* representatives from many community organizations as well as some interested individuals; (d) *Major Program Emphasis:* health, safety, education, recreation, employment, guidance.

Reducing racial, religious and national tensions, providing adequate recreational facilities and guided work experiences for young people, forestalling juvenile delinquency, improving standards of living, raising cultural levels — these are all educational problems which neither the school nor any other agency working alone can ever hope to solve. In many communities, however, startling success has been achieved when education is conceived as guided experience in better living, when the whole community's responsibility for providing that experience is widely recognized, and when school and other community agencies really coordinate their efforts.

Vergeville

In Vergeville, 54 social and civic organizations exist, each working in its own way toward community improvement. Until recently these groups worked independently of each other, and many of them accomplished little. Two years ago, for example, one of the service clubs made a recreation survey. Its findings and recommendations were important, but they *were not utilized* because there was no channel for bringing them to the official attention of the many other community groups which *might have helped* to put them into practice. *Seeing the need, the high school principal suggested the* formation of a coordinating council as a practical device whereby the organizations might work together in those activities in which there was common interest and concern.

Nearly all of the 54 organizations sent representatives to form such a council. They chose seven members as a steering committee for the council, with the town's major as honorary chairman and the school principal as executive secretary. Through free discussion the council developed a list of important problems facing the community and then organized itself into small working committees to study these problems and recommend constructive action upon them.

Community-wide action to meet the recreational needs was the first project recommended by its study committee to the full council. Drawing upon the service club report, the committee urged specific action in terms of facilities, leadership, and financial support. Lengthy and sometimes heated discussion followed, but final agreement was reached and presented to the constituent organizations composing the council and also to others who had not joined it. Nearly all gave full consideration and sanction to the proposed plan, and agreed to accept their indicated responsibilities for carrying it forward. Within four months the recreation plan was in actual operation, and was widely approved throughout the community. From idea to operation the recreation project was enthusiastically supported by the Vergeville High School student body, a charter member of the coordinating council and, through its two official representatives, an active participant throughout.[14]

Democracy — The Community School Practices and Promotes Democracy in All Human Relationships.

Members of a democratic society need to know how to carry on cooperative group activity, to give and take, to make choices, and to come out with solutions that represent the best thinking of the group.[15]

Democracy is more than a system of government, necessary as democratic government is to human liberty. Democracy is more than a pattern of ways for group living, essential as democratic relationships are to individual dignity and opportunity. Democracy is above all a dynamic social faith in the ability of enlightened people to manage their own affairs with justice and with intelligence. Self-government and equality of

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[14] Coordinating council activities and techniques are described in Jean and Jess Ogden, *Small Communities in Action*; Arthur Hillman, *Community Organization and Planning*; Clarence King, *Organizing for Community Action*; and Edward G. Olsen and others, *School and Community*, chapter 19.

[15] *Toward Better Teaching* (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1949), p. 6.

opportunity for the individual are practical expressions of this heroic democratic faith achieved through the struggles of many peoples over many centuries.

Hallmarks of democracy. Respect for the worth of the individual person regardless of race, nationality, religion, or social status; belief that the human mind can be trusted if it is free; confidence in the methods of cooperation, tolerance, and peace; individual and group practice of these beliefs — these are the hallmarks of true democracy. For democracy is not something "out there"; it is the way people act in relationship with one another. As the Educational Policies Commission has said:

> Democracy exists only in the patterns of behavior, feeling, and thought of a people. Let these patterns be destroyed and democracy itself is destroyed. And they will be destroyed if they are not acquired anew by each generation, acquired by the complicated process of teaching and learning.[16]

That is why democracy depends for its very existence upon enlightened social education of all the people. It is precisely why the community high school practices and promotes democracy throughout its own organization and program as well as in the life of the larger community.

The democratic school. The community school emphasizes in many ways the real meaning of democracy — its values and ideals, its foundations, history, advances and obstacles, its manifold complexities and its glorious promise. But this school goes beyond information about democracy and even beyond attitudes of loyalty toward democracy. Stressing these at all times, it provides also ever-widening personal experience in positive social action for democracy. This school and its community is therefore a living social laboratory in which young people study democracy as both goal and process, and where they continuously learn the specific skills of effective democratic participation and leadership.

This they do as under guidance they gain experience in identifying community needs and problems, analyzing issues

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[16] *Education of Free Men in American Democracy* (Washington: National Education Association, 1941), p. 49.

clearly, planning best probable solutions, choosing leaders, organizing working committees for research and reporting, evaluating recommendations received, carrying out plans made, appraising results responsibly. Frank discussion, respect for differences of opinion, imaginative planning, zealous effort, sober judgment and further discussion and planning — these are primary elements of the democratic process, and these are the firsthand experiences in group activity shared by all students in the community school. Ever alert to violations of democracy's principles in school and in community life, these young citizens build the democratic faith and process into their daily patterns of behavior — the only reservoir in which democracy can be contained. Thus they lay deep in their own character the foundations for a better community today and, with it, a better world tomorrow.

Capitol City

American Problems is a one-year senior social studies course in Capitol City High School. Current news of federal investigations into municipal graft conditions sparked a student interest that led the class into a study of local government. Background research included studies of boss rule in various cities, reports of previous official investigations and unofficial disclosures, and detailed analysis of the current federal exposures. Alert to possible relationships between ward politics and municipal graft, the students then looked into the council-manager form of city government in contrast to the mayor-council plan. Then, by small committees, they interviewed the police chief, the newspaper editor, veteran newspaper reporters, clergymen and welfare workers, business and labor leaders, and political scientists to ask their opinions about the relative merits of the two plans for city government.

A majority of the class became convinced that their own community needed the council-manager plan. Could they help get it? Maybe! So they went on to learn the steps legally required to submit such a proposal to the citizens. They consulted an attorney and enlisted students in other classes to help with a campaign to secure the needed voters' signatures. The augmented group then organized a central steering committee, a publicity committee, and a corps of petition-circulators who mapped the city and in every district rang doorbells and explained their plan as they asked for signatures on

9. Do you think the conventional high school will decline in importance unless it becomes a community type of school? Why or why not? What are the reasons for the position you take?

10. Are teachers today prepared to work in the kind of school described in this chapter? If not, what needs to be done? Can you suggest some kind of teacher-education experiences which might be developed to further improved teaching?

MOTION PICTURES

And So They Live. 25 min., New York University Film Service, 1940. Presents a dramatic, documentary record of home, school, and community in a section of the rural South. It shows the struggle to live in a region where the soil is depleted, where the school curriculum is far removed from the needs of the people.

Campus Frontiers. Color, 28 min., Association Films, 1942. The work-study program at Antioch College, showing how job experience invigorates classroom study and promotes good citizenship.

Children Must Learn. 13 min., New York University Film Service, 1940. Life of a poor family in the rural South trying to subsist on a poor soil is graphically portrayed. Suggests the part the school has played in the lives of such people and points the way to a school curriculum that deals with the problems of living.

Community Resources in Teaching. 20 min., Iowa State University, 1950. Shows how the community and its resources, and the school and its functions, can be woven together into a "pattern" of education by bringing the students into the community, by using its resources as laboratory studies, and by inviting the community into the school as lecturers and demonstrators.

Fight for Better Schools. 19 min., March of Time Forum Films, 1949. Shows in detail how the citizens of Arlington County, Virginia, brought about the complete reorganization of their school administration and facilities, and briefly how other groups are taking up the fight.

Field Trip. Color, 10 min., Virginia Department of Education and Norfolk County Schools. Shows how a junior high school biology class plans, conducts and follows up an excursion into Dismal Swamp. Objectives, preliminary reading, committee activities, student reporting, discovery of new problems and many suggestions for all types of trips are stressed.

Lambertville Story. 20 min., Teaching Film Custodians, 1949. The story of a constructive community activity to establish a Saturday night teen-age recreation center. A motor accident involv-

ing adolescents shocks the citizens into a realization of their responsibility to provide wholesome activities.

Learning Democracy Thru School-Community Projects. B-W or color, 20 min., Locke Films, 1947. Elementary and high school students participate in school councils, a rural field day, safety patrols, clean-up campaign, vocational guidance conference, Red Cross work, the parent-teacher-student organization, a community council meeting and a youth center.

Learning Through Cooperative Planning. 20 min., Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1949. A project of concern and interest to children and the community is skillfully exploited to provide real experience in planning cooperatively. The examples of democratic guidance given these boys and girls as they solve their problems will be especially illuminating to all who seek more effective ways of working with children.

Lessons in Living. 22 min., Brandon, 1945. Shows how a school project revitalized a community by giving the children a part in community life. The community of Lantzville, British Columbia, a cross-section of nationalities and industrial groups — farmers, fishermen, lumbermen, and railroad workers — had a disputed public school. The school and community changed and this film is the story of their transformation. The participation of children and parents in changing the school environments and in finding ways to open up recreational activities in the community is outstanding.

Living and Learning in a Rural School. 18 min., New York University Film Service. This film shows what can be done in community study with resourceful planning. Community resources contribute greatly to a curriculum project on Indian life.

Living in a Metropolis. 20 min., United World Films, undated. The giant city of New York has been selected as the subject of this film. Nowhere else could boys and girls better learn about just what constitutes a metropolis. The portrayal of the fact that in New York City millions of people of different cultural and racial backgrounds live together in peace, all eventually becoming Americans, makes this an engrossing film story.

Make Way for Youth. 22 min., Associated Films, 1947. How a youth council and recreational committee combat "invisible forces" of hate, prejudice, and misunderstanding in a typical community. Dramatizes all phases of the problem, including the organization of the council.

Near Home. 25 min., International Film Bureau, 1946. A British

class and teacher study the community in which they live. In the study of the community the pupils, and the part played by the teacher, can be observed in a learning process that takes advantage of an inherent interest in things near by and approaches the learning process as problem solving.

Playtown, U.S.A. 23 min., Association Films, 1946. Designed to provide civic, patriotic, service, religious, social, and other groups with the "why" and "how" of community organization for a year-round, all-age recreation program. This shows how a community can provide an adequate all-age recreation program if a few citizens want it.

Pop Rings the Bell. 23 min., National School Service, 1944. A dramatized story of a typical school which is meeting the new demands on education. School taxes are shown to be an investment, not a burden.

Schoolhouse in the Red. Color, 42 min., Agrafilms, 1948. Deals with the sociological and psychological factors involved when small communities face up to the problem of joining their school districts onto a larger unit.

School in Centerville. B-W or color, 20 min., 1950. Shows how education in rural schools can be geared to the problems of learning to live in the community. Seventh grade classes are seen in action at a model school in rural Virginia. Students are at work on projects which relate both to their need for knowledge and to the future roles they will take in the community. The three R's are not neglected but are integrated into meaningful study and activity.

School That Learned to Eat. Color, 22 min., General Mills, 1948. Tells the story of a school that learned to eat by working and playing together. Illustrates preplanning activities of faculty and community workers; mobilization of community resources; close cooperation between home and school; classroom activities. Shows how a school-community program brought about improvement in conditions that lead to better health and nutrition.

School Time in Camp. Color, 18 min., Life Camps, 1947. Two groups of children are taken to camp for a three-week period during the regular school term.

U.S. Community and Its Citizens. 20 min., United World Films, 1945. Portrays a community survey made by school children in Milford, Connecticut. Shows the actual functioning of community life and services.

We Plan Together. 20 min., Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1948. The entrance of a new boy into a

high school "core" class gives an opportunity to illustrate how
the class functions, how various fields of interest and subject
matter are integrated into the group activity, and how the needs
and abilities of the individuals are recognized and developed.

Wilson Dam School. 25 min., Tennessee Valley Authority, 1942.
Shows a school designed to take care of the needs of children
in the elementary school. The experiences of children, the
democratic planning together of teachers and children, and the
use of the community as a laboratory of learning help point
the way for the enrichment of programs in our elementary
schools.

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15

The Meaning of Evaluation

Paul E. Kambly

Evaluation is that phase of the teaching process in which the emphasis is on determining what happens to students as a result of their school experiences. The name evaluation for this phase of teaching has replaced the older terms testing, measurement, or appraisal largely because of a trend in public school teaching to focus attention on the whole child and his behavior rather than on whether he has done his assigned work.

The nature of any evaluation program is determined by the educational objectives of the teachers in a school. Traditional assign-study-recite teachers are usually satisfied simply to measure student growth in the acquisition of knowledge and skills. The further teachers deviate from assign-study-recite in the *direction of experience unit teaching with emphasis on the whole child and his behavior* the greater the need for a broad program of evaluation. Measuring growth in knowledges and skills becomes a less important part of determining student growth.

Evaluation differs. In those areas of instruction such as mathematics, language, and athletics where teachers and students concentrate upon learning information and skills, evaluation is less complicated than in other areas. Social studies,

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English, music, art, and science teachers have a more difficult program of evaluation because of objectives that involve interests, attitudes, appreciations, aptitudes, understandings, and other less tangible phases of human behavior.

This difference in the problems of evaluation can be made more concrete by considering the plight of a football coach who works hour after hour in an effort to help his squad learn the fundamentals and refinements of football. His efforts are undoubtedly motivated, to a very large extent, by the fact that he knows his team is soon to be evaluated by hundreds or perhaps thousands of spectators who watch his players compete in a game. Most spectators know when a team has been well coached and condemn a coach who fails to produce a smooth and well-coordinated team. This condemnation may result in the firing of the coach.

An American history teacher on the same school faculty with this coach may work just as long and hard in his efforts to help his students appreciate and understand what has happened in the past and the influence of these events on the present. He may be very successful in his efforts or he may be a dismal failure. In either case he is in little danger of losing his job as a history teacher because no one really knows what happens to his students as a result of his teaching. This chapter is concerned with this problem of evaluation in specialized areas, as well as evaluating the progress of all students as a result of the total school program.

FOUR REASONS FOR EVALUATION

There are at least four purposes of evaluation that are important to everyone interested in public schools. Listed in the approximate order of their importance they are:

(a) to determine the degree of attainment of the objectives of education.

(b) to provide a sound basis for good public relations.

(c) to furnish data about students that can be used in guidance.

(d) to provide a basis for marking and reporting to parents.

Classroom teachers are expected to evaluate student growth in terms of the broad objectives of education as well as in terms of the objectives of the areas in which they are teaching. The nature of this responsibility can best be illustrated by an accepted list of objectives for a subject matter area.

Types of objectives for science teaching. Most experienced science teachers would agree that the objectives in the following list [1] indicate the type of student growth desired by modern schools.

A. *Functional information or facts* about such matters as:
   1. Our universe — earth, sun, moon, stars, weather, and climate.
   2. Living things — plants and animals.
   3. The human body — structure, functions, and care.
B. *Functional concepts,* such as:
   1. Space is vast.
   2. The earth is very old.
   3. All life has evolved from simpler forms.
C. *Functional understanding of principles,* such as:
   1. All living things reproduce their kind.
   2. Changes in the seasons and differences in weather and climate depend largely upon the relation of the earth to the sun.
   3. Energy can be changed from one form to another.
D. *Instrumental skills,* such as ability to:
   1. Read science content with understanding and satisfaction.
   2. Perform fundamental operations with reasonable accuracy.
   3. Perform simple manipulatory activities with science equipment.
E. *Problem-solving skills,* such as ability to:
   1. Sense a problem.
   2. Define the problem.
F. *Attitudes,* such as:
   1. Open-mindedness — willingness to consider new facts.
   2. Intellectual honesty — scientific integrity, unwillingness to compromise with truth as known.
   3. Suspended judgment — scientific control, withholding conclusions until all available facts are in, not generalizing from insufficient data.

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[1] National Society for the Study of Education, *Science Education in American Schools,* Forty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947), pp. 28-29.

G. *Appreciations*, such as:
  1. Appreciation of the contributions of scientists.
  2. Appreciation of basic cause-and-effect relationships.
  3. Sensitivity to possible uses and applications of science in personal relationships and disposition to use scientific knowledge and abilities in such relationships (attitude).

H. *Interests*, such as:
  1. Interest in some phase of science as a recreational activity or hobby.
  2. Interest in science as a field for a vocation.

Teachers in other areas have comparable lists of objectives. All are faced with the problem of determining the amount of student growth in the attainment of the objectives. Careful inspection of the list will focus attention on the difficulty of measuring growth in areas such as attitudes, appreciations, and interests. In spite of the difficulty, good teachers continually try to develop techniques of evaluation for each of the objectives they use as guides to their teaching.

Good public relations. Any school that can produce evidence to show that work in science and other areas is really helping students attain objectives such as these is very likely to have the solid backing of the community. Taxpayers need the kind of evidence illustrated by a winning football team to convince them that instruction has borne fruit. In any community where a science department has produced one or more Westinghouse Science Scholarship winners, the citizens conclude that the school is producing results. Although the nature of the proof may be questioned, the fact that taxpayers want the evidence remains. Without it the typical reaction to requests for higher taxes and more money for school is, "What are you doing with the money that is already available?" Since money and community cooperation are essential for good schools, the importance of evaluation to provide a basis for sound public relations cannot be over-emphasized.

Basis for guidance. Much of the present-day criticism of public schools could be avoided if every school had a good guidance program. The responsibility for helping individuals plan their futures falls upon all teachers. In secondary schools

guidance involves helping students make decisions concerning the course of their lives after school days are over. To do this *adequately it is not enough to administer a few vocational aptitude tests in the senior year of high school. A record of growth trends kept over a period of years is a far more adequate basis for helping a student understand the kind of person he is and for formulating reasonable plans for his life. The data used by counselors must be accumulated through the process* of evaluation. It should include formal test scores, activity records, anecdotal ratings, reports of observation of behavior, and statements about individual students. With this information and the faculty to use the data, there is a great possibility that students can be directed into channels where they have a chance to succeed.

Marking and reporting. The importance of evaluation in providing the basis for grading and reporting to parents is closely related to sound public relations. Friction between schools and school patrons often is the result of dissatisfaction with the reports concerning student growth that are sent to parents. The following chapter on marking and reporting *is* based on the assumption that evaluation is a continuing process, without which marking and reporting to parents would be impossible.

It should also be fairly obvious that *without evaluation, changes in the offerings of public schools would be even slower* than they are at present. By demonstrating the failure of public schools to meet the needs of students and community the way to curriculum changes is opened. Information gained by evaluating student growth in traditional schools is largely responsible for efforts to provide greater opportunities for vocational training, work experience, and "common learnings" courses in the better modern schools.

EVALUATING IS SOMETIMES SUBJECTIVE

Direct observation. Direct observation of pupil behavior is the most basic and important technique of evaluation. As pre-

viously stated, the spectators at a football game observe the results of coaching and draw conclusions or evaluate its effectiveness on the basis of this observation. Unfortunately the history teacher has fewer opportunities to evaluate the results of his work by direct observation. Student growth resulting from his efforts may not result in immediate, observable changes in behavior. It may be several years before individual behavior as an adult citizen of the United States indicates good or poor history teaching. However, all secondary school teachers can learn something about student growth by careful observation of changes in the behavior of students with whom they work. Such observation may be the only possible basis for determining changes in appreciations or attitudes.

Anecdotal records. Because of the generally recognized importance of direct observation of changes in student behavior in determining growth, there has developed a common practice of making a written record of the type of behavior observed. This record becomes part of the accumulating data concerning the individual student. Anecdotal records are very commonly used in elementary schools where pupils are under the supervision of one teacher all day. In secondary schools where students have several different teachers during the day good anecdotal records are less common. A sample of the type of behavior observed and recorded for one student follows.[2]

9-16 Started a friendly wrestling match with T. on the playground. Became angry and said T. had pinched him.

9-23 Stopped a fight on the playground between second and fifth grade boys.

9-28 "Time goes by fast when you work." H. had been cutting out letters for a social studies poster.

10-3 "No, that's not right, T., I was touched back here." H. insisted that he was touched in football even though it was losing ground for his side.

10-5 "It's time to go to the science room now to run the movie machine." H. runs the school machine and takes the job very seriously.

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[2] Arthur Emil Hamalainen, *An Appraisal of Anecdotal Records* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1943), pp. 55-56.

10-31 H. stood on the stage and told people what to say as they came forward during our class assembly program. This was unusual behavior for H.—to volunteer assistance in work of this sort.

11-1 H. brought complaints from the other children for keeping the good football in the play period. He seems to think he *always deserves the best of the athletic equipment.*

12-4 Sulked because he was spoken to for wasting time. This is typical reaction of H. to criticism.

12-12 Stayed after school to help me move some boxes. H. likes to feel he is doing someone a favor.

Records such as these are of no value unless there is some use made of them. In school systems where counselors are available, such records may provide very necessary information in helping students solve some of their problems. Records kept over a period of years may contain considerable evidence of changes in student behavior.

Rating scales. There are various types of rating scales that are useful in evaluating students with respect to specific characteristics. The rating is subjective but a scale at least indicates the various specific characteristics being evaluated. The following sample is taken from the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale.[3]

DIRECTIONS FOR USING

SCHEDULE B

1. Do not consult anyone in making your judgments.
2. In rating a person on a particular trait, disregard every other trait but that one. Many ratings are rendered valueless because the rater allows himself to be influenced by a general favorable or unfavorable impression that he has formed of the person.
3. When you have satisfied yourself as to the standing of this person in the trait on which you are rating him, indicate your rating by placing a cross (X) immediately above the most appropriate *descriptive* phrase.
4. If you are rating a child, try to make your ratings by comparing him with other children of his own age.
5. The masculine pronoun (he) has been used throughout for convenience. It applies whether the person whom you are rating is male or female.

[3] M. E. Haggerty and others, *Behavior Rating Scale* (Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1930), p. 3.

6. In making your ratings, **disregard the small numbers** which appear below the descriptive phrases. They are for use in scoring.

DIVISION I

1. How intelligent is he?

Score

Feeble-minded	Dull	Equal of average child on the street	Bright	Brilliant	
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	___

2. Is he abstracted or wide awake?

Continually absorbed in himself	Frequently becomes abstracted	Usually present-minded	Wide-awake	Keenly alive and alert	
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	___

3. Is his attention sustained?

Distracted: jumps from one thing to another	Difficult to keep at task until completed.	Attends adequately	Is absorbed in what he does	Able to hold attention for long periods	
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	___

4. Is he slow or quick in thinking?

Extremely slow	Sluggish, plodding	Thinks with ordinary speed	Agile-minded	Exceedingly rapid	
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	___

5. Is he slovenly or careful in his thinking?

Very slovenly and illogical	Inexact. A dabbler	Moderately careful	Consistent and logical	Precise	
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)	___

Informal teacher-made scales may help a teacher make a more accurate evaluation of student growth in the attainment of objectives in such areas as appreciations and attitudes. Anderson, Forsyth, and Morse [4] in their discussion of the measurement of understanding in the social studies use an example of a teacher who wishes to discover whether his students are making sound social adjustments. They suggest that he make observations of the following types of behavior and record the ratings on each member of the class.

5. Heads a group easily without nervousness or agression.
4. Heads a group, but occasionally has difficulty.
3. Works with other individuals.
2. Works alone.
1. Works neither with group nor alone; drifts.

Objective Evaluation Instruments

Modern instruments used in evaluating student growth are extremely varied in type. The common educational tests are most familiar. Other instruments which attempt to measure intelligence, personality, attitudes, interests, and emotional adjustment are less familiar but useful tools in evaluation. All teachers should become familiar with the functions and characteristics of the more commonly used measuring devices.

Educational tests. The primary function of educational tests is the measurement of educational progress as indicated by the acquisition of knowledge. Modern tests for measuring this type of growth differ in several ways from the older discussion types of tests still commonly used. The questions or exercises are usually more carefully selected to coincide with the purpose for which the test is constructed. The exercises in a good educational test are arranged to form an accurate measuring instrument. Modern tests are also of greater value in diagnosing student difficulties. Good tests may indicate very specifically the kind of remedial attention needed. The exclusive use of educational tests in an evaluation program tends to place a premium

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4 William A. Brownell and others, *The Measurement of Understanding*, Forty-fifth Yearbook, Pt. I, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946), Ch. V, pp. 93-99.

on the ability of students to respond correctly to highly factual questions. The purpose of education is more than to develop students who can answer questions of the information type. The past and present practices of teachers in over-emphasizing scores made on educational tests is detrimental to a broader concept of evaluation.

Intelligence tests. Intelligence tests supposedly measure mental ability in a large degree independently of what the student has learned up to the time he takes the test. Most schools determine the intelligence quotients or I.Q.'s of their students by administering group intelligence tests. Since the ability to read and the previous background of students do influence scores on these tests teachers should use some caution in drawing conclusions on the basis of I.Q. alone. This caution is especially necessary if grading and reporting to parents is done in terms of students' abilities.

The accompanying illustration from the *California Short-form Test of Mental Maturity*[5] shows items that measure vocabulary.

Test 6

Directions: Draw a line under the word which means the same or about the same as the first word. Write the number of word on the line to the right, as:

0. blossom	1 tree	2 vine	
	3 flower	4 garden	_____0
1. strange	1 real	2 tell	
	3 certain	4 unknown	_____1
2. reply	1 news	2 answer	
	3 note	4 open	_____2
3. liberty	1 benefit	2 seize	
	3 freedom	4 overlook	_____3
4. assist	1 consent	2 help	
	3 agree	4 overlook	_____4

[5] Elizabeth T. Sullivan, *California Short-form Test of Mental Maturity, Intermediate S-Form* (Los Angeles, California: Test Bureau, 1942), p. 8.

5. admire	1 defend	2 protect	
	3 approve	4 agree	_____5
6. aim	1 offer	2 apply	
	3 haste	4 end	_____6
7. esteem	1 reject	2 estimate	
	3 exceed	4 respect	_____7
8. acquire	1 agree	2 conduct	
	3 obtain	4 conflict	_____8
9. counsel	1 glory	2 advice	
	3 generous	4 satisfy	_____9
10. ample	1 season	2 plentiful	
	3 alive	4 autumn	_____10

Scores obtained from intelligence tests can be converted into I.Q.'s and students classified in terms of their ability.

Classification	I. Q.*	Limits in terms of P.E.**
Near genius	140 and higher	+ 3 P.E. and over
Highly superior	120-139	+ 2 P.E. to + 3 P.E.
Superior	110-119	+ 1 P.E. to + 2 P.E.
Normal	90-109	− 1 P.E. to + 1 P.E.
Dull Normal	80-89	− 2 P.E. to − 1 P.E.
Borderline	70-79	− 3 P.E. to − 2 P.E.
Below Borderline	lower than 69	− 3 P.E. and below

Good teachers recognize the dangers involved in assigning students to one of these classifications, especially to dull normal or lower, purely on the basis of information gained by having students write one intelligence test.

Measuring personality and attitudes. During the years from

* These numerical values are based on the Stanford-Binet Test with a standard deviation of 16. For tests having a different standard deviation these values would differ.
** Each intelligence level is defined as a zone or interval embracing a range of I.Q.'s falling at each such distance from the mean, where these distances are expressed as multiples of the probable error.

1930 to 1940, largely as a result of the trend to focus attention on the whole child and his behavior, educators turned their efforts to consideration of attitudes and personality. There is now available a wide assortment of tests, inventories, and scales aimed at discovering many of the aspects of human thought and behavior. Teachers generally recognize that it is more important for a student to be well-adjusted to his family and community environments than to be able to answer all the questions in an informational type test.

Personality inventories attempt to determine an individual's adjustment by his answers to questions such as these taken from the *Bernreuter Personality Inventory:* [6]

The questions on this blank are intended to indicate your interests and attitudes. It is not an intelligence test, nor are there any right or wrong answers.

In front of each question you will find: "Yes No ?"

If your answer is "Yes," draw a circle around the "Yes." If your answer is "No," draw a circle around the "No." If you are entirely unable to answer either "Yes" or "No" to the question, then draw a circle around the question mark.

1. Yes No ? Does it make you uncomfortable to be "different" or unconventional?
2. Yes No ? Do you day-dream frequently?
3. Yes No ? Do you usually work things out for yourself rather than get someone to show you?
4. Yes No ? Have you ever crossed the street to avoid meeting some person?
5. Yes No ? Can you stand criticism without feeling hurt?
6. Yes No ? Do you ever give money to beggars?
7. Yes No ? Do you prefer to associate with people who are younger than yourself?
8. Yes No ? Do you often feel just miserable?
9. Yes No ? Do you dislike finding your way about in strange places?
10. Yes No ? Do you blush very often?
11. Yes No ? Are you easily discouraged when the opinions of others differ from your own?
12. Yes No ? Do you try to get your own way even if you have to fight for it?

⁶ Robert G. Bernreuter, *The Personality Inventory* (Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 1935).

13. Yes No ? *Do athletics interest you more than intellectual affairs?*

14. Yes No ? *Do you consider yourself a rather nervous person?*

15. Yes No ? *Do you usually object when a person steps in front of you in a line of people?*

Attitudes may also be measured by the use of scales or questionnaires. When using these instruments it is assumed that what students say they approve or disapprove is an indication of how they may actually behave in various life situations. This may not be a correct assumption.

The simpler forms of attitude tests provide a list of stimulus words, and students are asked to underline those they like or those that bother or disturb them. A procedure that can be extremely useful to classroom teachers is collecting "free response" materials.[7] A direct question such as "Why do you feel this way?" may result in answers that can be analyzed to provide information concerning student attitudes.

More complex attitude scales are constructed in such form that students can check for each statement one of five responses to indicate their feelings about it. The following sample taken from the Byrd Health Attitude Scale[8] illustrates this form.

DIRECTIONS

READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY AND AT ONCE UNDERLINE YOUR REACTION TO THE STATEMENT. Please work rapidly. Indicate the way you honestly *feel* about each statement. BE SURE TO ANSWER EVERY ITEM.

1. A person should be entirely responsible for his own health.
   Strongly agree[1]   Agree[2]   Undecided[3]   Disagree[4]
   Strongly disagree[5]

2. The government should require all people to be insured for sickness.
   Strongly agree[5]   Agree[4]   Undecided[3]   Disagree[2]
   Strongly disagree[1]

[7] Raymond G. Kuhlen, and George G. Thompson, "Studying Attitudes in the Classroom," *Educational Method*, May, 1943, Vol. 22, p. 360.

[8] Oliver E. Byrd, *Byrd Health Attitude Scale* (Palo Alto: Leland Stanford Junior University, 1940).

3. The health department should leave all health matters to the local doctors.
    Strongly agree [1]   Agree [2]   Undecided [3]   Disagree [4]
    Strongly disagree [5]
4. All persons with tuberculosis should be registered with the public health department.
    Strongly agree [5]   Agree [4]   Undecided [3]   Disagree [2]
    Strongly disagree [1]
5. Free clinics for the treatment of cancer should be closed.
    Strongly agree [1]   Agree [2]   Undecided [3]   Disagree [4]
    Strongly disagree [5]

Determining interests. The interests of students have long been known to be of great importance in influencing choices of courses and the quality of work done in school. Because of variations in interests, classroom teachers who are confined within the boundaries of traditional courses find it necessary to permit considerable latitude in the choices of learning activities. Student interests can be determined through informal conversations, by using teacher-made questionnaires, or by giving formal interest inventories. The information obtained by using these inventories is important in counseling students concerning choice of courses in school and occupational possibilities.

The Benge *Interest Analysis* [9] is a check list of topics that illustrates the formal type of instrument used in attempting to determine student interests. The topics included are sub-divided under the headings: "school interests," "discussion topics of interest to you now," "personal activities," "occupational preferences," and "personal traits." The following sample is taken from the subdivision on personal activities.

It has been proven that the correct interests are important to success in most vocations. People differ widely in their interests and the object of this questionnaire is to determine your particular interests. It is not a test of intelligence. There are no right or wrong answers. You need merely estimate your own interest in each subject with utter frankness.

[9] Eugene, J. Benge. *Interest Analysis* (Philadelphia: Management Service Company, 1942).

Validity. A test is said to have validity if it measures what it is supposed to measure. Validity is lacking in many informal tests largely because teachers fail to define the objectives toward which students growth has been directed. Tests that emphasize memorization of specific dates, structures, places, laws, formulas, or technical names are not valid unless the objective for the work completed is to develop the ability to memorize specific details. An English teacher who prepares a test requiring students to identify authors, quotations, or titles should not attempt to evaluate student growth in appreciation of good literature on the basis of the scores obtained on the test. Since validity is determined by the extent to which a test measures what the student has had an opportunity to learn, any teacher can check a test for this characteristic by making a careful inspection of its content. Such an inspection should at least result in what is known as curricular validity.

Reliability. A test is said to have reliability if it measures consistently whatever it does measure. For example, if the same group of pupils were given the same test a second time a few years apart and each individual received the same score, the test would be considered reliable.[10] If the rank of each individual is about the same on two tests, or on two forms of the same test, the test is considered to be reliable. The correlation coefficient between scores on the two tests is the reliability coefficient that is usually reported for tests.

Reliability coefficients have one serious limitation. If there are large differences in achievement among the pupils in a group, the rank of each pupil will be about the same on each test. But if the differences in achievement among the pupils are very slight, the two tests will not agree so well. In educational achievement tests, the range of pupil ability has an important effect on the size of the reliability coefficient.

Broad sampling. A third characteristic essential for a good test is a broad sampling. The scores on a test should be representative of the scores that might be obtained if it were possible

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[10] Reliability derived from the use of comparable forms of the same test is more accurate. This example is given merely to illustrate the concept of reliability in simple terms.

to measure total performance in the area covered by the test. Broad sampling tends to reduce errors in evaluating student growth because the chances students have to demonstrate growth are increased. The chief student criticism of essay tests has always been that the limited number of questions make it necessary to memorize every possible detail so as to be sure to know the few questions that are asked.

Easy scoring. A fourth desirable characteristic of a good test is easy scoring. Such a test can be accurately scored by clerical help or by the students themselves. Easy scoring may depend on the form of the test or on the form of the answer sheet used by students. Informal teacher-made tests should be set up in such a way that all answers are placed in a column along the right hand side of each page. A key can then be placed along this column and the errors marked very rapidly. Standardized tests often include answer sheets that can be scored by placing a cutout stencil over each sheet. The correct answers are those which appear in the stencil openings. Incorrect answers can be indicated very rapidly by marking the openings that are blank on the students answer sheet. If total score is all that is desired, it is obtained by counting the number of marks showing in the stencil openings without making any marks on the answer sheet.

Comparability. A fifth characteristic of a good standardized test, but not necessarily of an informal teacher-made test, is comparability. This characteristic is established by providing two or more comparable forms of the same test. These data make it possible to compare the performance of students in a given group with the performance of the original group of students who took the test. Two forms of the same test are used most often when teachers wish to compare student performance before and after a unit of instruction. By the use of comparable forms it is assumed that the evaluation is more accurate than it would be if the same form were used twice.

Standardized tests. Standardized tests differ from informal teacher-made tests primarily in the quality of test items and in the statistical treatment that results in the establishment of comparative norms. The author of a standardized test must

attempt to prepare items over content that all students who are to write the examination have had a chance to learn. The difficulty in selecting valid content depends upon the subject matter to be tested. In mathematics the selection of content is much simpler than in social studies because the desired outcomes are more easily identified. Consequently there are many good standardized tests in mathematics from which a mathematics teacher may select. A social studies teacher has a more difficult problem of selection because a standardized test is less likely to be valid in terms of the course as taught by that individual teacher.

Most teachers use standardized tests to compare the achievement of their students with the achievement of other students taught by other teachers. There is some satisfaction in discovering that a group of students is "above the national norm." There is little satisfaction in discovering that they are "below the norm," but the information may serve as an incentive to learn more about the students in a class or to devise better teaching and learning techniques. Unfortunately the tail begins to wag the dog when administrators make it clear to teachers that their classes must achieve above the national norms on standardized achievement tests. Under such pressure teachers tend to teach for good test performance and forget all other objectives. This tendency has undoubtedly been partly responsible for the very slow progress in curriculum improvement.

The basic important question that standardized tests may help to answer is whether or not students are achieving at a level consistent with their ability. Teachers accused of spending too much time with dull or bright students at the expense of other members of a class can check the accuracy of the criticism by comparing student performance on standardized achievement tests with the performance that would be expected on the basis of their intelligence quotients. The ideal result of such a check is to discover that all members of a class are achieving at what seems to be their proper levels. Thus a teacher working with a low ability group may be proud of

achievements of the group even though test scores are below the national norm.

The best sources of information about the variety of standardized tests are the *Mental Measurement Yearbooks*.[11] These contain descriptions of tests and reviews. The reviews are written by subject-matter and test specialists and provide information that may not be given by the authors and publishers of tests.

Informal Teacher-Made Tests

Informal teacher-made tests are widely used as aids in evaluating student growth. Teachers prefer to make their own examinations because they can thereby be reasonably sure that their tests are valid. Teacher-made tests may be either essay or objective. Both types are commonly used. Essay type examinations have been used much longer than objective tests and are still preferred by some teachers. It is easy to understand why an English teacher may prefer to give essay examinations while a science teacher prefers objective. The type of student growth being evaluated is obviously important in deciding what type of examination should be prepared.

Since the scores on teacher-made examinations are almost universally used as a basis for determining the marks assigned to students, many teachers prefer the greater preciseness of objective questions. It is a well-know fact that grades on an essay type of examination are extremely variable if assigned by different teachers. However, studies have shown that it is possible to reduce the variability of teacher marks by improving the quality of essay examinations.

Essay questions. A recent professional magazine had a cover picture that included a blackboard on which there were several questions. Two of these questions were "Discuss the structure of the amoeba" and "Tell all you know about the paramecium." These were intended to be very poor examples of essay questions. One can argue that they are acceptable only if it is agreed that any answer will be accepted. Any discussion of

[11] Oscar K. Buros (editor), *The Mental Measurement Yearbooks* (New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1938, 1940, 1949).

the amoeba, no matter how poor, must be accepted because the question simply says, "Discuss." By the same line of thought any student who answers the second question by saying, "The paramecium is a protozoan. That is all I know," has written a perfect answer. Teachers who use similar questions usually refuse to accept such answers and often unfairly assign failing grades to the authors.

Essay questions can be improved by making them clear and definite. "Discuss the structure of the amoeba" can be changed to, "Enumerate the structures that make up an amoeba. Tell briefly what seems to be the function of each structure."

It is now possible to set up standards for judging the answers students write. These standards should be equally apparent to readers other than the author of the question. Questions that begin with enumerate, list, define, or what would happen if, are almost always better questions for younger students than those that begin with discuss, tell all you know, or what can you say.

One of the common faults of essay type examinations is inadequate sampling. This fault is easily corrected by more careful attention to the selection of questions. Last-minute rushing to write a set of examination questions is not conducive to adequate sampling. Almost invariably hurriedly prepared questions will center around the material most recently covered in class.

Beginning teachers, especially those in secondary schools, are on safer ground in defending marks and maintaining reasonably friendly relationships with students and parents if the marks indicating understanding of subject matter are based upon objective tests. Teachers who agree with this statement recognize that objective tests emphasize measurement of student growth primarily through knowledge of facts, understanding of information, and acquisition of skills.

Objective examinations. Ross[12] classifies the principal types of objective tests as follows:

1. Recall types.
    a. Simple-recall.

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[12] C. C. Ross, *Measurement in Today's Schools*, 2nd ed. (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), p. 127.

    b. Completion.
2. Recognition types.
    a. More common.
       (1) alternative-response
       (2) Multiple-choice
       (3) Matching
    b. Less common.
       (1) Rearrangement.
       (2) Identification.
       (3) Analogy.
       (4) Incorrect statement.

In the following pages there are suggestions for writing and using the five most commonly used types. Anyone wishing a more detailed discussion of objective test items should read one or more of the references listed at the end of this chapter.

Simple-recall questions. These items are written as direct questions. The answers must be recalled by the student rather than simply recognized as correct. In some areas of subject matter, such as mathematics and science, simple-recall items are especially useful. As is true when using almost all types of objective test items, the emphasis tends to be upon measuring the recall of highly factual information. The following examples are offered as representative of well-written simple-recall questions.

1. What is the formula for finding the perimeter   1. _____
   of a rectangle?
2. How many sides are there in a hexagon?   2. _____
3. The sum of three consecutive odd numbers   3. _____
   is 141. What are the numbers?
4. What is the process by which green plants   4. _____
   manufacture food?

Any questions like these can usually be written in the form of completion questions and be just as useful.

Completion questions. These questions are statements in which certain important words have been omitted. Students are expected to fill in the missing words. Because important words are usually omitted, completion tests tend to become vocabulary tests. This may or may not be desirable depending upon the nature and purpose of the test. Many teachers use the sentences in basic textbooks for their completion items. By

using the exact phraseology of the basic text they encourage
students to depend upon rote learning rather than upon real
understanding. For this reason, the language of the text should
be avoided whenever possible.

In order to make scoring easier all blanks should be placed
in a column along the right-hand margin as shown by these
examples.

1. The publication called "Common Sense,"
   which helped to promote a feeling of in-
   dependence in the colonies, was written
   by ? .   1._____

2. The first nation to settle what is now New
   York was ? .   2._____

In addition to making scoring easier this form provides blanks
of equal length and does not cause students to consider words
of proper length for a given blank. It makes no difference where
the blank occurs in the statement. Definite articles such as
"a" or "an" should not precede a blank because they decrease
the range of student choice by providing a grammatical clue
to the correct response.

The score on completion tests is usually the number correct.
When students complete the statements with words that are
correct but not those intended by the author of the statements,
they should be given credit for the items. It may be necessary
to make several revisions in the wording of a completion item
before it produces only one correct answer.

   Alternate-response questions. Alternative-response ques-
tions are most commonly used because they are easiest to write.
Students are usually asked to indicate if a statement is true or
false or to answer a question by indicating yes or no. Although
it is easy to prepare a list of such statements or questions, it re-
quires some practice and effort to produce a good alternative-
response test. Teachers who prepare a test made up of state-
ments taken from the basic text, some of which have a word or
two changed to make them incorrect, are certainly encouraging
students to "learn the textbook." It is much better practice to
use statements different from those in the assigned reading but

with similar meaning. For example, the text statement is:

"More than half of your body is made up of water." The test item covering this information might be:

T   F   There are over seventy-five pounds of water in a boy who weighs one-hundred and fifty pounds.

Each alternative-response item should be all right or wrong. Students naturally resent the fact that they may respond incorrectly to an item because some qualifying clause changes what otherwise seems to be the correct answer. An example of a poor item is:

T   F   The bat is a mammal that flies at night, and feeds on green leaves.

A bright, but perhaps careless, student may mark this statement true because the first part is true. The item can be improved by changing the words "green leaves" to "insects," which makes the entire statement true. It might also be improved by using the original wording but making two or three statements instead of one.

T   F   A bat is a mammal.
T   F   A bat flies at night.
T   F   A bat feeds on green leaves.

The examples used illustrate the recommended form for alternative-response items. Asking students to encircle either the T or F to indicate answers *is preferable* to having the students write the letters because there can be no question concerning the letter intended. The number and order of true and false statements can readily be determined and placed in random order by flipping a coin. Students who are told that this method is used will not waste time trying to figure out the "system."

Alternative-response tests are often scored by subtracting the number wrong from the number right. This method ignores those items omitted. It is used because students have a fifty-fifty chance of responding correctly even though they may not know the correct answer. Research studies have shown that the rank of pupils is essentially the same when the test scores are based on the number correct rather than rights minus

wrongs. Students prefer the practice of counting the number correct as the score.

Multiple-choice tests. A multiple choice item may be made up of a direct question with four or five responses or by an introductory incomplete statement followed by four or five completions. The following samples illustrate the two possible forms.

What often causes earaches that accompany diseases of the nose and throat?
a. Increased pressure in the middle ear
b. Inflammation of the inner ear
c. Inflammation of the outer ear
d. The destruction of tissue by bacteria
e. Decreased pressure in the middle ear . . . . ( )

Earaches accompanying diseases of the nose and throat are usually caused by
a. increased pressure in the middle ear.
b. inflammation of the inner ear.
c. inflammation of the outer ear.
d. the destruction of tissue by bacteria.
e. decreased pressure in the middle ear. . . . . ( )

In writing either form of the statement as much of the statement as possible should be in the introductory part of the item. This means that the responses should be as short as possible.

All the possible answers should be reasonably plausible. It is more sensible to reduce the number of possible answers than to include statements that are so obviously incorrect that no one in any class would ever choose them. This rather extreme example was used by a student teacher.

The insect considered to be of greatest economic importance to apple growers is the
a. cotton boll weevil.
b. European corn worm.
c. Mexican bean beetle.
d. codling moth.
e. tomato worm. . . . . ( )

One student probably spoke for the class when he asked, "What's the matter, **do you think we're crazy?**"

Multiple choice questions are the best of the four basic types for measuring reasoning and understanding. Problem situations

can be described in the introductory statement and followed by a series of possible solutions. Items that test for real understanding are usually of greater value in discriminating between good and poor students than those that test for retention of isolated facts.

Matching tests. Matching test items are made up of words, phrases, or dates in one column with explanatory phrases in a second column. The student is expected to match the explanatory phrases with the correct work or phrase included in the first column. Matching tests emphasize the factual learning that results from teaching and should rarely be the sole basis for evaluating student growth. The sample that follows shows the general form recommended.

I	II
1. James Oglethorpe	____ A. First Secretary of Treasury of the United States.
2. Roger Williams	____ B. Leader of war in the west.
3. William Penn	____ C. Established good land policy.
4. James Otis	____ D. New England "firebrand" who encouraged revolution.
5. George Rogers Clark	____ E. Founded colony of Georgia.
6. Samuel Adams	____ F. Led colonial protest of "writs of assistance"
7. Alexander Hamilton	____ G. Founded Rhode Island.
8. Patrick Henry	____ H. Leader of Quakers
	____ I. Governor of Virginia.
	____ J. French leader.

The unbalanced columns make it impossible to determine the last matching pair on the basis of elimination alone. The names in Column I are consistently those of famous men in United States history. It is not good practice to include the names of people, dates, and places in the same group of matching items because the wording of the explanations in Column II automatically eliminates several possibilities for matching. The number of items in any one group of matching items should rarely exceed fifteen. If the columns are longer, students must spend too much time looking for the correct answer. If a test of thirty items is desired, there should be three distinctly separate groups of items of approximately ten each.

1. What are the differences between the procedures of testing, measuring, and evaluating?
2. Why is evaluation important in public school teaching?
3. Why is subjective evaluation often very important in teaching?
4. Name and describe at least four different types of objectives evaluating instruments.
5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of knowing the I.Q. of the students you teach?
6. What are the characteristics of a good examination?
7. What are the chief uses of standardized tests in public school teaching?
8. Collect samples of essay questions that are used by your own instructors and show how they can be improved.
9. Prepare a test of at least fifty questions covering the subject matter for one semester's work in one of your teaching fields.
10. Enumerate the techniques you plan to use in determining the success of your teaching.

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16

Marking and Reporting

Paul E. Kambly

One of the purposes of evaluation listed in the preceding chapter was to provide a basis for assigning school marks. Most students in teacher training programs probably have never thought about the problem of marking a student from a teacher's point of view. In many instances they have been too busy criticizing the marks assigned to them by their teachers. It may be surprising to learn that of all the activities teachers carry on, assigning school marks comes high on the list of those liked least. DeZouche[1] probably expresses the feeling of many teachers when she says, "If I were asked to enumerate ten educational stupidities, the giving of grades would head the list." The only teachers who can assign marks without misgivings are those who operate on the assumption that the purpose of education is to help students master subject matter. Marks assigned by these teachers supposedly indicate how well students retain subject matter. Other teachers who see education as the development of desirable changes in student behavior feel that it is next to impossible to assign a mark that *means anything as an indication of student growth.*

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[1] Dorothy DeZouche, "The Wound Is Mortal," *Clearing House* (February, 1945, Vol. 19), pp. 339-344.

Purpose of Marking

Before trying to understand the types of marking systems that have been and are being used, it is necessary to consider the reasons for giving marks. A study in 1932 of 258 selected schools revealed that there were eleven purposes recognized as being served by marks. These purposes are listed in the following table.

Purpose served by marks in 258 schools *

Purpose	Frequency	
	Number	Per Cent
1. Keeping parents informed of pupil's progress	224	95
2. Furnishing a basis for promotion	238	92
3. Furnishing a basis for graduation	212	82
4. Motivating pupils	194	75
5. Furnishing a basis for the awarding of honors	190	74
6. Furnishing a basis for guidance in the election of subjects ...	158	61
7. Furnishing a basis for guidance in college recommendation	155	60
8. Furnishing a basis for determining extent of participation in extracurriculum activities	133	52
9. Furnishing a basis for guidance in recommendation for employment	113	44
10. Furnishing a basis for awarding credit for quality	100	39
11. Furnishing a basis for research	50	19

A similar study made at the present time would probably reveal that teachers still use marks for most of the purposes listed.

Reporting. Marks are certainly commonly used as the medium by which parents are kept informed concerning student progress in school. The question of whether or not typical marks really provide parents with meaningful information is partially answered in this chapter. It is important to remember that many parents think they do. It is almost certain that as long as school marks are issued parents will take them seriously. Teachers who recognize this fact feel an obligation to try to

provide a marking system that actually serves this important purpose.

Keeping records. Our system of mass education makes record keeping a necessity and a major undertaking. There are now far more students in schools than there were 20 or 30 years ago. Their marks are important in determining whether they have been promoted and when they are ultimately ready for graduation.

Counselors look at marks given for work completed before advising students to take algebra, physics, or industrial arts. The same marks furnish a basis for deciding whether or not students should be advised to go to college or seek employment. *This is true in spite of the almost total disregard of marks after students leave school.* Schooling may be measured in terms of years, diplomas, or degrees, but it is rarely measured in terms of the marks made in school. Most relatives, friends, associates, or employers think of other individuals as high school or college graduates but attach little significance to the marks on the school records that finally made graduation possible.

Motivation. The motivational value of marks is always emphasized by certain types of students, teachers, and parents. Probably most people who emphasize this value are or were fortunate enough to receive good marks in school. They know that marks encouraged them to keep working and assume that other students were likewise motivated. Actually there is no motivational value in a low mark received by a poor student. He probably feels more punished than motivated. All teachers should be willing to forego the motivational values of school marks and get students interested enough to do their school work in some other way. The practice of preparing honor rolls and eligibility lists based on school marks may be effective motivation for some students, but it is psychologically unsound and detrimental to good mental health for many students.

TYPES OF MARKING AND REPORTING SYSTEMS

Per cent marks. During the last 50 years marking systems have received considerable study and revision. The result is a

wide variety in present-day practice, with all stages in the evolution of marking represented. The early system was typically a percentage system. When a student received a mark of 96 per cent in algebra, neither the student nor his parents raised any questions. They accepted the assumption that 100 per cent performance in algebra is a known quantity. Yet it is doubtful if any teacher could mark a student so precisely even in a mathematics course. In spite of the fact that per cent marks mean little or nothing in describing modifications in student behavior, there are still many teachers and parents who are willing to sign petitions requesting schools to use this system. They do not seem to realize that such a system tends to prevent the development of many important phases of student behavior because it emphasizes the factual learning that is more easily measured. There can be no denying the fact that there is something "soothing" to parents in a report form such as the following with the implied accuracy of per cent marks. The report form was satisfactory to one of the authors who as a student, received the sample shown because it carried no in-

_____ March 1 192 2

Teachers' Report to Parents for School Month of February.

Paul E. Hambly ... has done work at the standard indicated:

Algebra 96	English 73	Household Science
Geometry	Physiology 92	Botany
History 73	Physical Geography	
Latin	Zoology	

REMARKS: _____

_____ Mata Jahn Teacher

_____ Miss Jensen

Teachers will be glad to meet parents in consultation at the school house. 8 A. M. to 12 A. M. and 1 P. M. to 5 P. M.

formation about the poor conduct, cooperation, attitude, and industry that resulted in his being "kicked out of class" repeatedly during the course of the year.

Five-point scale. The use of A, B, C, D, and F as a marking system emerged from attempts to improve the per cent marking system in public schools. By this change teachers were freed from the responsibility of making the extremely precise judgments indicated by 96 per cent. However, the letter grades were often defined by grouping per cents. An A grade represented performance somewhere between 92 and 100 per cent. This change did make marking easier for teachers. That it did not increase the relationship of the mark and what a mark represents was indicated by Johnson's pioneer study of high school grades.[2] He reported the following variations between two teachers in assigning letter grades:

	A	B	C	D	F
First Teacher	7%	22%	47%	16%	8%
Second Teacher	36%	30%	24%	6%	4%

Because there is a great mass of evidence that emphasizes this variation in marking standards there are also many studies on the reliability of teachers' marks.

Starch and Elliott at about the same time found that 142 English teachers marked the same examination paper in high-school English all the way from 64 to 98 per cent. They also showed that a teacher does not mark the same examination paper consistently at successive time intervals.[3] It is only fair to say that there are later studies that indicate teachers' marks are reliable enough to have certain predictive value as to future scholarship.

A typical report card used in school marking on a five-point

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[2] Franklin W. Johnson, "A Story of High School Grades," *School Review* (January, 1911, Vol. 19), pp. 13-24.
[3] Daniel Starch and Edward C. Elliott, "Reliability of the Grading of High-School Work in English," *School Review* (September, 1912, Vol. 20), pp. 442-457.

scale is shown below. The chief difference between this and the preceding form is simply the change from per cents to the five categories described at the bottom of the card.

Two-point scale. The introduction of a five-point scale made marking easier but did not remove the inadequacies of a marking system. The next phase in the evolution of marking systems was very logical. It was to reduce the scale to a two-point scale

group. If, in the judgment of the teacher, the child is not doing as well as his ability justifies, he is marked 'unsatisfactory.' "[4] Those parents and teachers who objected to changing from per cents to a five-point scale were even more unhappy with a two-point scale. They argued that if marks are supposed to tell anything there must be a more adequate system. As one would expect, many students formerly motivated by the desire to earn an A or B, immediately decided that all that was necessary to keep out of the U or F category. To correct this tendency it was necessary to add some symbol such as H for "Honors" as is illustrated in the report card above. Again the chief difference between this and the preceding sample card is the reduction to a three-point scale instead of five.

Supplementing marks. The next phase in the evolution of marking systems was to supplement marks with other information. Report cards had long carried a space for marking "deportment." After World War I deportment became citizen-

SCHOOL CITIZENSHIP					SCHOLARSHIP PROGRESS					

report form on page 376 is evidence that practice is not new. The conference plan of reporting works well only when the teacher conferring with parents works with a student all or at least most of the day. This limits its usefulness to undepart-mentalized school programs, which generally means the elementary grades. The trend toward the "common learnings" type of course in junior high school, in which one teacher is primarily responsible for working with a group of students through a major part of the day, may result in the use of the conference system of reporting at least through the ninth grade. According to Wrinkle, "The most serious objection to the conference plan is that it demands a heavy time investment. Even though the time spent is well spent, reporting is regarded as a regular part of the teacher's day in addition to his regular teaching load. If conferences with parents could be included as a part of his day's work, the conference plan would be practical." [5]

Informal letters. At both elementary and secondary levels there have been some attempts to substitute informal letters to parents for either marks or parent-teacher conferences. Again this plan has a better chance of being effective in the hands of a teacher who works with a small number of students for all or most of the day. Secondary school teachers who may have as many as two hundred students cannot write that many good informal letters. This type of reporting is difficult for most teachers. There are few teachers who can write a series of informal letters about students without using statements that are meaningless generalities. There are also many who unintentionally antagonize parents who misinterpret the statements made.

Check lists. Largely because of the difficulties involved in informal letters for reports to parents, check forms for the purpose of reporting have been tried in some schools. Instead of writing, "He shows courtesy and consideration to others," a teacher simply places a mark on a printed form to indicate his evaluation of this characteristic. (See pages 382 and 383.)

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[5] William L. Wrinkle, *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices* (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947).

The preceding paragraphs have described seven types of marking and reporting practices in the approximate order of their evolution: (1) per cent grades; (2) letter symbols such as A, B, C, D, and F; (3) a two-point system with symbols such as S and U; (4) symbols representing achievement in subject matter supplemented by information about traits of character and personality (5) parent-teacher conferences; (6) informal letters; and (7) check forms. All seven of these techniques or variations and combinations of them are currently in use in public schools.

Objections to present trends. Johnson questions the further development of report cards that attempt to provide parents with ratings on more and more traits. His arguments are offered here to point up the problems involved in marking and reporting.

Many of the attempts to improve marking and reporting practices are concerned with marking on qualities desirable for good citizenship and school progress such as dependability, cooperation, self-reliance, initiative, thrift, sportsmanship, school service, self-control, workmanship, courtesy, promptness, et cetera. Other attempts try to reveal whether or not a pupil meets his responsibilities promptly, begins work promptly, or whether or not he is working up to capacity. These efforts indicate the direction in which changes are being made. Even though we hew to the old line of evaluating the successful accumulation of data, educators are trying to incorporate the concept of growth in a marking system designed largely to evaluate on a factual scale. It seems a little strange to some of us that, in spite of the fact that the letter scale was introduced because teachers could not mark as accurately as the percentage scale suggested, teachers are now being asked to evaluate that which is vastly more difficult and more often than not defies evaluation.

These attempts at improving marking might well be called partial, analytical markings or ratings. Frankly, taking the long look ahead, they're in all probability doomed to failure for at least the following reasons:

First: teachers are asked to perform a service beyond their capacity. What teacher in a junior or senior high school can fairly evaluate eleven or more citizenship qualities for a hundred or more students? . . .

Second: it is extremely doubtful if the growth of citizenship qualities or character traits can be promoted by so direct an ap-

proach as that of marking. The greatest things in child growth may very well be by-products of engaging in worth-while learning activities. . . .

Third: no partial analytical working scheme, however accurate, can tell the true story. It is a person's behavior or reaction based on the totality of his personality that is important. All parts of a person function as a synthesis in every act.

Fourth: what has been learned about how children grow educationally would seem to suggest less marking, not more. . . .

Fifth: too much time and energy are consumed in an enterprise which promises so little to the ultimate objectives of education. There is just so much energy and time available, and these should be employed for maximum results.[6]

In most communities there are probably both teachers and parents who are dissatisfied with the marking system currently in use. The following quotation taken from the *Rocky Mountain News* for November 28, 1949, may be atypical in language but it is very typical of the feeling of some parents concerning marking and reporting systems.

"What are the schools trying to hide from parents by sending home a report card full of nonsense, with no room on it for the facts or percentages of the child's progress?

"Recently I asked for these facts and percentages, and they told me to stay home from work and come see them so I could get those facts.

"Just what — am I paying taxes for?"

TRADITIONAL MARKING PRACTICES HAVE MANY SHORTCOMINGS

Because of the fact that most secondary schools do use a five-point marking system is considered representative of traditional marking practices.

Earlier in this chapter it was stated that neither per cent grades nor letter grades really tell anyone how much a student has achieved or how much his behavior has changed as a result of school experiences. Traditional teachers, who teach as if the sole purpose of education in American democracy is to help

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[6] Lemuel R. Johnson, "Reporting Pupil Progress in the Junior and Senior High Schools," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (March, 1950), Vol. 34, No. 169, pp. 77-78.

students learn subject matter, would take exception to this statement. They would argue that an A grade in American History is based on knowledge of subject matter. They would also argue that one can measure the extent of knowledge accurately by the use of standardized tests or informal teacher-made tests such as those described in the preceding chapter. They are partly right.

There are two major fallacies in their argument. An A grade given in American History in one school may be earned by the best student in the history class. However, there is evidence to prove that this same A student might have been given an F had he been in another school in a different American history class.[7] Or his grade might have been B, C, or D. Then what does the A mean? Can we assume that an A student is always one of the best students in a given class? Unfortunately it seems as if even that assumption is incorrect.

Lobaugh, reporting in an article on girls and grades, presented evidence that A grades are not necessarily given to those who have learned the most subject matter.[8] The Myers-Ruch High School Progress Test was used in this study. This test includes 80 items each in the fields of English, mathematics, science, and social studies. The following paragraphs present some of the results of a comparison of scores on the achievement test with grades assigned by classroom teachers.

In scoring the 1940 tests, we received our first shock when we tried to find the papers of the valedictorian and the salutatorian of the class (these tests, as indicated, were given at the end of the senior year). Now the graduating classes at this time were numbering 250 or more each year, and the school had a strong academic tradition, so being number one and number two scholar in the class on a three-and-a-half year average was no mean feat. These individuals were girls, as usual. But we had to go down 86 scores from the top to find the valedictorian and 105 scores down to find her running mate. In 1941, the corresponding individuals did a little better. The valedictorian (a girl) came up to 19th place, and the salutatorian (a girl) was exceeded only by 41 members of the class.

On the contrary, on the 1940 test, a boy who ranked 49th on seven-semester scholarship averages was second on the test, ranking at the 98 percentile mark on the nation-wide norms. (This fellow later studied at California Institute of Technology, and is now a college instructor in physics.) But this is the most striking observation: the boy in the class who ranked first on the achievement test actually was so poor a class performer that he failed of graduation, and required another year of high school to finish!

One of the difficulties in determining just what an A means lies in the fact that it may be based on fixed standards, achievement in comparison to the student's ability, or achievement in comparison with other members of a class. Most teachers use a competitive marking system so an A usually is supposed to mean that the student is very good in comparison to other members of the class.

A competitive marking system is not only psychologically unsound, it is also very undemocratic. If public schools are really intended for all the children of all the people and the education of every citizen in a democracy is desirable, competitive marking cannot be defended. It is not democratic to use a system that encourages citizens of high scholastic ability and discourages or eliminates those with less ability to do the things required in public schools. The old argument that all people compete for the essentials of adult living, and that competition in schools is good preparation for later life, ignores the heterogeneous nature of a school population. Any ninth grade class may include future doctors, dentists, teachers, farmers, clerks, and day laborers. People in these different vocations certainly do not compete with individuals in other vocations in adult life. There is no logic in forcing such competition in public schools. There are many opportunities for a more legitimate use of competition in public schools than in determining school marks.

The Conflict Between Theory and Practice

The preceding discussion of marking practices and report forms indicates the existing conflict between theory and practice. A beginning teacher is not free to abandon the use of marks or to change marking practices to suit himself. He is

expected to conform to the traditional procedures within any individual school or system. More harm than good results from any single-handed attempts to revolutionize marking and reporting systems. The most any individual can do is to promote a study of the existing system by all faculty members. Such study may result in desirable improvements.

It is important to remember that the theoretical solution to the problems that grow out of assigning school marks is to abandon the use of marks. Because of the variety of uses made of marks this is an impractical solution.

Recommended marking practices. Since most people who pay any attention to school marks believe that they indicate achievement in subject matter areas, they should do this as accurately as possible. This will be true until such time as adult education programs result in general public understanding of the fact that the functions served by marks can be better served by other means.

No teacher can be even reasonably accurate in marking students unless the ability level of the students is known. Information about reading level, I.Q., and informational background can be obtained by using measuring instruments similar to those described in chapter 12. With this information available it is possible to determine the approximate number of students who should be able to do A, B, C, D, and F work. Further use of measuring instruments that test achievement in subject matter areas will provide data that can be transformed into letter grades. This procedure may result in few A's and B's or some other seemingly unequal distribution. The advantage lies in the fact that an A student is determined on the basis of much larger population than the local school. An A from one school tends to mean the same as an A from another school. Classes do vary in ability and any given class may be good, average, or poor in comparison to the large populations used in standardizing tests. These variations will be evident in the number of different letter grades assigned. These statements can be summarized by saying that there should be no attempt to mark on the so-called normal curve.

Strict adherence to the principle that a grade represents

achievement in a given subject or area in comparison with a large population will tend to remove the discrepencies in grading in different schools. Poor students, as compared to this large population, know that they are not achieving at the levels many other students do. They are far less likely to set goals for themselves that there is little chance of achieving. Parents and other counselors also profit from this comparison to larger populations. There is greater likelihood that students will be guided into fields where their chances of success are good.

Remember that this suggestion is based on the assumption that marks must be given to students. It does not change what has been said about marks being psychologically unsound and undemocratic. Many teachers, who are trying to make the best of a bad situation, make a further attempt to decrease the evils of marking by not failing any student who is achieving up to his capacity. A D is often given to a student who should fail if the comparison to large populations is rigidly followed. This is an inconsistent but commendable practice. There are very few schools in which the administration would object to passing students of low ability even though their achievement is not up to what are considered acceptable standards.

Improving marking and reporting is a faculty problem. The best available report on a school that has gone through the process of improving its marking and reporting system is Wrinkle's *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices.*[9] The teachers involved in this study finally reached agreement on a list of seven general objectives, stated in terms of behavior, of all teachers, courses and activities.

1. He directs his individual activities effectively.
2. He follows plans and directions.
3. He gets along well with others.
4. He takes an active part in group living.
5. He speaks correctly and effectively.
6. He takes good care of personal and school materials and equipment.
7. He observes attendance regulations.

[9] William L. Wrinkle, *op. cit.*

Each of these seven general objectives were further broken down into specific behaviors. The first is reproduced here to show the nature of these behaviors.

1. *He directs his individual activities effectively.*
   1.1. *He begins work promptly.*
   1.2. *He makes good use of his time.*
   1.3. *He requires a minimum of supervision.*
   1.4. *He does more than the least that will be accepted.*
   1.5. *He meets his responsibilities promptly.*

After the task of breaking down general objectives was completed the teachers set up the objectives of courses in terms of specific behaviors. The specific objectives of social studies courses that resulted follows.

SOCIAL STUDIES

1. He constructs and reads maps, graphs, and charts.
2. He locates places referred to in the study of current problems.
3. He explains current problems by recalling correct, significant, related historical information.
4. He recognizes propaganda and prejudiced or otherwise unreliable information.
5. He reads newspapers to secure appropriate information concerning current problems.
6. He reads magazines and pamphlets to secure appropriate information concerning current problems.
7. He listens to radio programs and speakers to secure appropriate information concerning current problems.
8. He expresses ideas by drawing or interpreting cartoons and pictures.
9. He constructs bulletin boards and displays.
10. He expresses ideas by using music, dramatics, or literature.[10]

These teachers then began marking students on both general and specific objectives using the symbols O, S, N, PN, U, and 1E meaning *outstanding, satisfactory, needs to make improvement, has made unusual progress but needs to make further improvement, unsatisfactory,* and *insufficient evidence on which to base evaluation.* They learned that for their purposes it was inadvisable to use different reporting forms for each course or activity and finally developed one form. They continued to use

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10 William L. Wrinkle, *op. cit.*, pp. 103-104.

the lists of specific objectives for courses and activities on mimeographed student's self-evaluation forms. The report card sent to parents is reproduced on the following pages.

EVALUATION OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT
COLLEGE HIGH SCHOOL OF
COLORADO STATE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
AT GREELEY

Student	Secondary School Years	Date of this Report			
		2½	5	10	15
Course or Activity	Weeks Enrolled	Regular Periods Each Week			

GENERAL OBJECTIVES: The evaluation of the student's achievement of the twelve general objectives which follow is made in terms of what normally might be expected of students of similar age and school placement. O — OUTSTANDING, S — SATISFACTORY, N — NEEDS TO MAKE IMPROVEMENT, U — UNSATISFACTORY, X — INSUFFICIENT EVIDENCE OR DOES NOT APPLY. Specific Behaviors Especially Responsible for O, N, or U Evaluations are Checked. Specific Comments Particularly with Reference to O, N, and U Evaluations Are Written On The Opposite Side Of This Sheet.

——1. HE DIRECTS HIS INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITIES EFFECTIVELY ( ) begins work promptly ( ) makes good use of time ( ) requires minimum supervision ( ) does more than the least that will be accepted ( ) meets responsibilities

——2. HE FOLLOWS PLANS AND DIRECTIONS ( ) listens to and reads directions carefully ( ) follows and completes plans and directions which have been set up

——3. HE GETS ALONG WELL WITH OTHERS ( ) is considerate of rights and wishes of others ( ) is courteous and tolerant ( ) controls his temper ( ) conforms to reasonable social standards

——4. HE TAKES AN ACTIVE PART IN GROUP LIVING ( ) participates in group planning ( ) volunteers his services ( ) does his share in group activities

——5. HE SPEAKS CORRECTLY AND EFFECTIVELY ( ) speaks clearly ( ) adjusts his voice to the size of the room

——6. HE TAKES GOOD CARE OF PERSONAL AND SCHOOL MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT ( ) shows respect for property ( ) does not waste or damage materials or equipment ( ) returns things when due ( ) reports breakage and loss

——7. HE OBSERVES ATTENDANCE REGULATIONS ( ) is regular and prompt in attendance except for approved causes ( ) arranges in advance for absence when possible ( ) takes initiative in making up work missed ( ) makes proper use of school health service

——8. HE READS WITH EASE AND UNDERSTANDING ( ) selects important ideas ( ) understands and evaluates what he reads ( ) reads with reasonable speed

——9. HE EXPRESSES HIMSELF CORRECTLY AND EFFECTIVELY IN WRITING ( ) expresses ideas clearly ( ) uses correct grammatical forms ( ) punctuates correctly ( ) spells correctly ( ) writes legibly

__10. HE UTILIZES AVAILABLE **SOURCES** OF LEARNING MATERIALS ( ) selects and uses appropriate sources of information ( ) uses library and library tools effectively ( ) effectively engages in interview and observation

__11. HE USES THE PROBLEM SOLVING METHOD ( ) recognizes problems ( ) states problems clearly ( ) collects and records appropriate information ( ) arrives at sound conclusions

__12. HE USES THE BASIC SKILLS IN MATHEMATICS ( ) uses accurately the simple fundamental combinations ( ) computes with reasonable speed ( ) uses fractions and per cents correctly ( ) selects correct processes

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES: The specific objectives of each course and activity have been discussed with the student and used in classroom instruction and evaluation activities.

His achievement of the specific objectives of this course or activity has been:

better than   consistent with   poorer than

what reasonably might have been expected of him in terms of his background and ability.

Such that full credit is not recommended on administrative records.

Such that he cannot be recommended for admission to college courses or training programs to which this course is prerequisite.

Such as to justify encouraging him

to enroll in _____

not to enroll in _____

Supervising Teacher

This section is for record purposes and is to be detached before the report is issued to the student or his parents.

ACTUAL
ACHIEVEMENT:

     Outstanding   Above Average   Average   Below Average   Very Poor *

EXPECTED
ACHIEVEMENT:

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. What are some of the traditional reasons for marking students on their work in school?
2. Why do many teachers dislike the task of assigning grades to public school students?
3. Which of the marking systems described in this chapter seems most satisfactory to you? Why?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the conference system of reporting to parents?
5. What are the advantages of a five-point marking system?

* Adjusted credit recommendation (in full year courses only): 1/3 1/2 2/3 regular credit should be allowed.

6. What are the arguments for and against any type of competitive marking system?
7. What are the objections to a report card that includes a large number of traits to be rated?
8. How is the practice of assigning passing grades to almost all public school students most commonly defended?
9. What are the arguments favoring the marking of students in terms of their abilities?
10. Prepare a report card that you would be willing to send to the parents of your students.

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17

Control of Public Secondary Education

David E. Willis

Every beginning teacher should have a clear understanding of the legal bases for public education and the structure and operation of the public schools not only in the local community in which he is teaching but also at state and federal levels. He should understand the roles both teachers and other citizens will be playing in that program, and what is being done by them to improve the quality of learning experiences children have in the public schools.

The teacher cannot concern himself solely with what happens in his own classroom if he is to make a real contribution to the growth of the youth in his care. He must make a continuous effort to know the people of the community, children and adults, and to understand where the public school program fits into their lives.

THE ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Education has become a function of the state. In a democratic society every parent has the right to some control over the conduct and education of his children, so long as his ideas are not definitely harmful to children. As this nation has grown, American citizens have gradually delegated more and more of their responsibility for educating their children to the public school.

This desire of parents to have their children educated in an institution created specifically for that purpose has resulted in the development of a system of public education in the United States that is unique among nations. The organization for this system is based upon the concept that

> The American public school is an extension of the home, through specific delegation of power by a public act of the citizens to the individual state, and represents a partnership between the parent and the state, necessitating the active interest and intelligent participation of parents in the educational program.[1]

Parents cooperate with teachers in the determination of what educational experiences will be provided for their children and in the operation of the schools in order to provide this education. Education of children thus is kept close to the parent, yet the people of the community have the power to modify the educational program in the best interests of all.

Legal origin. The duty of the parent to educate his children stemmed from English common law and was brought to the American continent by the English colonists. These pioneers regarded highly their responsibility for educating their children and moved to cooperate in the establishment of community schools. A system of such "public" schools gradually spread throughout the colonies. Although at first they were over shadowed by private and parochial schools, they in time passed the private institutions in numbers and scope. As the system of public education developed, the control of parents over education of their children was progressively decreased and the control of the state was increased in the best interests of all.

In 1642 to 1647 two laws were passed by the Massachusetts Colony. These constituted probably the first state action for public education. One law required each town to teach its children "reading, writing, religion, and the colonial laws;" the second gave the town authority for general taxation for support of the schools, but the *taxes were not generally collected.* Other colonies soon copied this organization, and it became fixed in

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[1] Arthur B. Moehlman, *School Administration* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940), p. 131.

the thinking of the colonists as they moved westward. This educational organization set the pattern for two basic tenets of public education: state action in educational matters and local control of public education by the community.

Another step occurred during settlement of land in the Northwest Territory after the Revolution. In a bill governing sale of land in the territory, provision was made for reserving a section of land in each township for maintenance of public schools within that township. Later two sections, and in some of the western states four sections, were reserved for this purpose. Profits arising from use or sale of that land were to be spent for education according to the will of the residents. This policy of giving land to the local community for educational purposes marked the beginning of many similar federal educational land grants during the nation's development. The federal land grant, however, is not a significant source of school support today.

Education at this stage in the nation's history did not seem to be a primary issue. The provision for land grants was very likely set up to serve as a means of encouraging migration to western lands. In the Constitutional Convention, education was probably not significant as a national problem in comparison with other more immediate needs. The Constitution as originally adopted contained no direct preference to it. There has been no reason why the federal government should not participate in public education; it is probable that originally it was too poor or too preoccupied with other matters to do so. Thus, by what might be termed "default," public education has evolved as a function of the state government.

It has been asserted that education is solely a prerogative of the state because the federal Constitution does not specifically mention it. In commenting on court decisions bearing on this problem, John S. Brubacher says: "The final impression is to be left with students of education is that the future objection to national activity in education will have to be fought on the point of fact or policy and not that of law or constitutionality." [2]

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[2] "The Constitutionality of a National System of Education in the United States," *School and Society*, 46.417-423, Oct. 2, 1937.

The key to a further step in development of the public educational structure can be found in the first ten Amendments to the federal Constitution — the "Bill of Rights." The first Amendment provided for freedom of teaching in recognizing legally freedom of speech and of the press, and the right to peaceful assembly, which were already established in principle.

Organization of public education in the states was provided for in their written constitutions, reflecting the people's awareness of the need for a system of public schools. The legislatures of the various states have developed a series of statutes relating to the education function, setting up ways and means by which children in a state are educated. Some of these laws are mandatory in nature, setting up requirements that constitute a minimum program. Others are permissive, delegating activities and powers to the local community for conduct of its schools according to the desires of its residents. The state school code, comprising all statutes relating to public education, is subject to judicial review by the state courts in regard to the relationship of any individual law to the state constitution and general powers reserved to the state. In the legal history of public education, interpretation of educational laws by the courts has consistently reaffirmed that education is a responsibility of the state.

LEVELS OF EDUCATIONAL CONTROL

Control over public education has remained close to the people. The practice of delegation by the state to a local governmental unit of the power to create and maintain a public school system has become a general pattern of educational control. It is probably a result of the early states not having sufficient resources to subsidize schools. As social conscience and state treasuries have grown, the state has accepted the concept of shared financial responsibility. There are four principal levels of control in the organization of public education: local, intermediate, state, and federal.

Local units. The administrative unit at the local level has

usually been termed the "school district." The *original school district* was the small community, combining urban and rural populations. As towns became larger in area and population, the original small communities evolved into separate school districts. This has resulted in a great number of small units for administering schools, each in a geographical and population area that is usually artificial in nature.

The legal nature of these local school districts is unique. It is actually a unit of the state government, created by the state to carry on a state function. The local school administrative unit and the corresponding unit of political government are separate and distinct even though their physical boundaries often coincide. A municipality is the creation of people resident within its corporate limits and is concerned primarily with matters relating to the promotion of their welfare. Lay people who serve on the board of education are actually officials of a state agency with powers vested in them by the state, having large authority in almost all matter concerned with the education of children in the public school of that local district.

Legislature responsible. The school district is a creation of the legislature of the state. Its boundaries and its powers in respect to the educational program are determined by the state legislative body. This means that all of the people of the state, acting through their representatives in the state government, are able to tell the residents of one district that they must have a minimum amount and quality of education for their children. It is more than just a local concern whether or not these children are educated. If changes in boundaries or powers are considered necessary by the state legislature, this body may act to make such changes without securing consent of the local residents. The only restraint to such action by the legislature is the limits and powers set in the state constitution. In actual practice such changes are made quite gradually and are greatly influenced by the needs and wishes of people in the local community. This is as it should be in a democracy.

The local unit of control takes a variety of forms in different sections of the nation. *It will be profitable for the teacher in*

any state to study the **structure of the local school district** in
that state and the **type of control** over the educational program
exerted by the representatives of the people in the community
in which he is or will be teaching. An initial understanding of
the various arrangements for administrative control in the
community should serve as a basic framework upon which care-
ful research can build a more detailed understanding when the
teacher is in service.

Five types of local units: city or urban districts. Such ad-
ministrative units usually coincide with the municipal unit of
government in a city. A board of education is generally elected
although at times it is appointed for the school district, and the
board employs a superintendent to whom is delegated re-
sponsibility for administration of the educational program.
Usual practice is for the school board to subdivide the school
district, an administrative unit, into a number of smaller units
termed attendance districts. The city-district unit can be found
in every one of the 48 states.

Common school district. With variations this administrative
system exists in 26 states. School districts vary greatly in size,
shape, school population, and plan for control of the educational
program. The plan found in the majority of such units is the
board of education having almost full responsibility for public
schools within the district boundaries. In a great number of
such districts there is only a one- or two-teacher school, ad-
ministered directly by the lay board of education with a mini-
mum of professional supervision. (See Chapter I for the num-
ber of such districts.) There has been a growing trend toward
consolidation of a number of small districts, each of which may
have previously maintained a high school, into one large high
school district in order to increase the size and scope of the
high school program for youth living in the several member dis-
tricts. In a number of states these high school districts have
been superimposed on the original school districts which still
maintain their elementary school, the high school district
and the elementary school districts each being controlled by
separate boards of education.

mendation of teachers to local boards; apportionment of state and county school funds to the local units; and employment of educational specialists to help teachers in all the individual schools. The county superintendent thus may be a "direct operator" in a county unit or a "staff officer" in a county that has a dozen or more independent districts.

The supervisory union. In certain rural areas where the district or townships cannot each employ a superintendent for their own local unit, several units have joined forces to secure professional supervision. Usually there is a board of directors for the union made up of individuals elected from member districts.

State control. Since education is actually a function of the state, there is need for an overall organization to see that the state's program for education is accomplished at the local level. Its operation would be based upon the premise that certain phases of the education function can best be performed by a centralized agency on a state-wide level. In general, this state organization provides educational leadership for all educational units in the state. The major activities of the state organization include: (1) overall planning and organization of the state's program for education. This does not mean that no plans are made by the local unit; rather, a framework is organized at the state level for more detailed educational planning at the local level. (2) Coordinating execution of educational programs by local school administrators. (3) Financing of the state's program through provision of money from state funds and equalization of cost among local units on the basis of their ability to support education from local sources of revenue. (4) Establishing certain basic standards for education of children that must be met by the local unit. (5) Continuous evaluation of the effectiveness of educational programs within the state and research toward their improvement. (6) A clearing-house of information on educational programs and practices among schools.

The state organization generally consists of a state board of education, a chief state school officer, and a state department of public instruction. The state board of education is an advisory

body composed of individual members appointed in most cases by the governor; in addition, on many boards there are *ex officio* members, i.e., persons holding some other political office which automatically places them on the state board of education. These boards have jurisdiction over elementary and secondary education and, in a few cases, also over higher education in state-supported institutions.

The chief state school officer is selected in several of the states by popular election; in other states he is either appointed by the state board of education or by the governor. His title usually is "State Superintendent of Public Instruction"; in a few states this title has been changed to "Commissioner of Education." His role is that of an executive responsible to the state department of education for leadership of the state public school program. The relationship between this officer and the state board of education is theoretically parallel to that between the local superintendent of schools and the district board of education, but actually it is less clearly developed.

It is generally recognized that better educational results are attained with an appointed state superintendent rather than with an elected superintendent. State superintendents have built up staffs of professionally trained people to assist them in the execution of their powers and duties; together, the superintendent and his staff comprise the State Department of Public Instruction.

The Texas plan. The efficiency with which the state department performs its functions is adversely affected in many states by inadequate financial support and insufficient personnel. Another inhibiting factor has been the partly political and only partly professional character of the office of the state superintendent itself, especially in states where he is elected by popular vote. Salary inconsistent with the nature of the position, a short term of office with consequent lack of tenure, and political pressure are a few of the factors that have tended to keep highly trained professional school administrators out of the position.

There are state departments, however, that are providing real leadership to educators and laymen in their respective

states toward continuous improvement of educational programs in the local schools. Texas offers an example of this trend toward professionalization of the state department.[3] Recently the Texas legislature set up machinery for a 21-man State Board of Education, one member to be elected by each of the United States Congressional Districts in Texas. This board has been empowered to select a commissioner of education to carry out its policies and to serve as its executive officer. The commissioner and his staff, together with the State Board, make up what has been termed the Central Education Agency.

In those states where definite progress has been made toward improvement of the state organization, there has been marked educational progress among local schools as a result of the leadership and functioning of the state department. To illustrate the broad scope of the state department's functioning, the following description of its activity is given: [4]

In outstanding state educational programs, careful provision is made for the improvement of instruction, adequate finance, functional school buildings, the total welfare of children, safe transportation, competent teaching personnel, the health of pupils and teachers, suitable supplies and equipment, and other considerations essential to good education. The state department formulates uniform accounting procedures, requires specific information from local districts, interprets educational needs to the legislature, directs the teacher tenure and retirement systems, issues teaching certificates, and exercises general control over institutions for juvenile delinquents and exceptional children.

It is expected to assume leadership in promoting educational progress. This is frequently done through sponsoring and organizing conferences for the discussion of current problems, providing special advisory services, publishing research studies, issuing practical pamphlets for the use of administrators and teachers, and serving as an agency to stimulate and assist local districts in the improvement of their own educational programs.

Besides these services, the department of public instruction is required in all states to administer the laws pertaining to the dis-

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[3] For further information see J. Warren Hitt "The New Texas State Board of Education," *School Executive* 69:39-40, April, 1950

[4] Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, *The Teacher and School Organization* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1949), p. 68

tribution and apportionment of state funds, building safety, transportation, school board regulations, and in some states to supervise the issuance of all state licenses for professional and nonprofessional ranging from medical practitioners and barbers.

The federal government in education. The federal government plays a definite but secondary role in the educational programs of the nation's schools. Since education has developed as a function of the state, as we explained earlier in this chapter, the federal government has no direct control over public education in the states. There has been a steady growth in the participation of the federal government in the state's programs that has caused concern among some educators. It is their fear that increased federal participation at the state and local level may lead away from education controlled largely by the people most closely affected — i.e., the local community — toward a centralized control.

Financial aid.[6] The federal government has offered financial inducements to the schools for undertaking programs of vocational education particularly in home economics and agriculture. There has been a consistent policy of federal land-grants to states and local communities, as referred to earlier in this chapter. In addition, during certain periods of crisis, emergency funds have been granted to local districts; these have included direct aid to rural districts in the depression years of the 1930's, grants for construction of school buildings under the public works program, subsidizing of local programs under which war workers were trained during World War II, grants in lieu of taxes to districts where a sudden influx of workers on federal projects has brought a corresponding increase in school population without an increase in local tax resources.

Special educational programs. In certain instances the federal government has bypassed state governments to set up its own educational programs which the states or local districts have been unable or unwilling to assume. These have included the

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[6] For an exhaustive coverage of the various channels by which federal money is being furnished to educational programs see Zeno B. Katterle and Ruth E. Pike, *Compilation of Laws and Proposals Relating to Federal Aid to Education* (Pullman, State College of Washington, 1949), 431 pp.

National Youth Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the so-called "G.I. Bill of Rights." In this latter program, veterans attending schools and universities in local communities received money directly from the Veterans Administration for educational expenses and subsistence, and the institutions in turn received money from the same agency for tuition costs of each individual veteran.

Other educational programs. There are a number of widely different types of schools included in this classification: public schools in territories and colonies; schools for members of the armed services such as the United States Military Academy at West Point, the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and special training schools; Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs in universities and some secondary schools; schools for Indian children on reservations; schools for children of military and civilian personnel in occupied countries.

The U.S. Office of Education. This service agency of the federal government has no direct control over education within states and local communities. Among its functions are included research studies and surveys on educational problems of interest to educators and laymen throughout the nation; information on educational matters is published in bulletins, in a magazine called *School Life,* and in various circulars. It cooperates with state and local units in the administration of federal grants, and provides leadership through consultative services of various staff members of the Office and planning of conferences and meetings on issues of concern to educators over the nation. The U.S. Office of Education has been of great influence and service to schools in the local communities and its role as a service agency is steadily increasing.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The resident of the local community pays the major portion of the bill for the educational program through direct and indirect taxes. The parent and non-parent adults of the local community have the responsibility to determine how their children shall be educated and the accompanying duty to pay for

the education that is provided in the public schools. There are two very important considerations in a study of a community's support of its schools: *What is their ability to pay for an adequate educational program, and what effort are they making to pay for the quality of education their children need?* Schools cost money, and the better the services the more money is required. Since the public school is an expression of the concern of the community for the welfare of its children, the quality of the educational program is in direct proportion to the community's willingness to support that program.

The principal source of funds has been the general property tax, a tax upon property belonging to individual residents and organizations in the community. Real estate is the most tangible form of property upon which the assessor can place a value; hence, it bears most of the tax burden. The value of the taxable property within the district as determined by an assessor constitutes the ability of that district to pay for its schools. The actual amount they are paying in relation to what they are able to pay determines the effort they are making to provide education.

Ability to pay varies greatly among districts within a particular state and over the nation as a whole. Within one district there may be a great deal of property that is low in value; within another there may be large industrial or railroad properties. Many of the poorer districts are required to levy a much heavier tax burden on the individual taxpayer in order to support schools than is the case in the wealthier districts. Thus, they are making a far greater effort to provide education than the more able districts, who, when they wish, are able to support outstanding educational programs.

State support. There has been a steady trend toward assumption by the state of an increasingly larger share of the financial support of the schools. Justification for this state support lies first in the principle that education is a function of the state and, therefore, the state should help pay; second, glaring inequalities among local districts in ability to pay necessitate outside aid if *all children in the state are to have even approximately equal*

opportunity to be educated. Money for school support by the state comes from taxation of personal income, a retail sales tax, gasoline taxes, licenses, interest from permanent school funds originally based on income from school lands granted by the federal government, and other miscellaneous sources.

Practices vary among states, but distribution of these funds by the state to local districts is usually made on a number of different bases, among which are: average daily attendance of pupils in the local district, number of classroom teachers and specialist personnel, school transportation costs, and "equalization funds." It is in this last category where state support makes the greatest contribution to the overall state program; poor districts receive proportionally greater amounts than those more able to maintain at least a certain minimum program. The degree to which the state helps support local programs varies widely among states, from more than 90% of the funds available to the local district coming from the state in Delaware to less than 10% in states such as Nebraska.

There is a growing need for improvement of the financing of school programs by the state and local units. It is generally believed that improvement will result if only one or all of the following steps are taken: [6]

Improving state support programs. (1) Residents of the local community and their school board must be allowed to levy taxes they feel are necessary for the kind of educational program they want without artificial tax limitations or ceilings imposed by the state.

(2) A more balanced partnership program between state and local units should be developed. Provision of funds on a partnership basis would call for reasonable local effort as well as that of the state.

(3) Each state should develop a comprehensive, balanced program for distribution of funds to districts for all essential *services and facilities including current operating expenses* and provisions for capital outlay for buildings and equipment.

(4) Continuation of small inefficient local districts should not

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[6] Adapted from Edgar L. Morphet, "State and Local Financing of School Programs," *School Management,* 19 2, 19, July, 1950.

be encouraged through providing funds for services in their schools which cannot be financially justified. If the local citizens want to continue small high schools that can provide only minimum services at an excessive cost per pupil, the extra cost should come from extra local effort.

(5) Uniform local assessment practices must be established that will accurately determine property valuation within each local district. If sufficient funds to support an adequate educational program in the district are to come from the general property tax, steps must be taken to ensure the proper yield from this source. The efforts made in many districts to support their schools is far from what it could be at present tax levies if assessments were made accurately. Every district in the state should make an equal effort to support its educational program; equalization funds distributed to districts under such conditions really serve to correct educational inequalities.

Many educators advocate the distribution of funds by the federal government on a similar equalization basis. They point out that many states do not have the ability to pay for adequate programs on a state-wide basis, and that other states have the wealth but are not making an effort to pay what is anywhere near their ability. The federal government can tax wealth wherever it exists and could distribute it where it is needed, thus ensuring that every child in the nation would have at least a certain minimum education.

The most generally favored plan for federal aid calls for distribution of federal funds to the state governments which would in turn distribute them to local districts in the same manner as they do their own funds. Under this plan the federal government would in no way indicate how their funds are to be spent and would demand no accounting from either state or local levels. It is felt that this would prevent any degree of control by the federal government of the local educational program, thus maintaining the local control of public education that is the basis of the whole educational structure.[7]

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[7] In January, 1952, such a plan for federal aid for public schools had not yet been voted. See chapter 4 on reasons why such funds are not yet available. It is unlikely that federal funds will be voted for school operation in the near future

The public school system is probably the most democratic institution in the nation. A key principle upon which its organization and operation is based is a faith in the ordinary citizen's interest in the welfare of his children. In a democracy the interest of the few is supposed to be kept secondary to the best interest of all the people, and the laws of the land are framed in this spirit.

Within the community, duly selected representatives of the people, ordinary citizens untrained in the technical know-how of education, cooperate with professionally trained persons to organize and maintain the public schools. It is in large part this lay-professional team-work that has made public education so effective in serving children and community. The board of education on the one hand, is sensitive to what education the community and its children want and need and establishes the scope of the educational program. The professional school executive and the teachers, on the other hand, are in charge of the school system, coordinating what is done for children by teaching and non-teaching personnel. The chief function of the citizen board is to elect an executive and to determine policies. The quality of the educational program is directly dependent upon the quality of the administrative and teaching personnel they select on the recommendation of the executive.

The board of education. The local board of education is the agency created by the state to plan and manage the education of the children within the community. To this agency the people have entrusted their right and responsibility for educating their children, and the members of the school board are directly responsible to these people. They are government officials, however, agents of the state government, with far-reaching authority in practically all matters pertaining to the educational program. It is their function to put into effect the state's minimum program for education in the local community, to adopt that program to the needs and wishes of the residents of this community, and to provide additional opportunities that

the community desires above and beyond the state's declared minimum.

Individual school board members are representatives of the people, trustees responsible for the well-being of their children. It is important that only persons interested in seeing that these children have the best education possible be the ones who serve on the board of education. The American Association of School Administrators described the good member as one who is:

... of more than average ability in many ways. He is broad-minded and open-minded. He is willing to give substantial blocks of time to discharge his responsibilities as a school board member. ... (He) has a sense of humor and a capacity for human understanding. He is not so thin-skinned that he cannot take criticism of either the schools or the board — or of himself. ... He knows that his interest in the welfare of school employees is one of the best ways to make sure that the employees are devoted to the children.

(He) relies on objective evidence and makes decisions on this evidence rather than on the basis of feeling, prejudice, or personal interest. He takes responsibility easily, being willing to take a stand in the community for better schools. From this he does not waver.

The good school board member likes people and sees many of them. He has friends; he is affiliated with important community groups. He is a strong influence in the community. He uses this influence to get good salaries and better working conditions for teachers and keeps the schools abreast of community needs. He believes that the future welfare of the community is closely tied up with the success of the school system. His goings and comings in the district make for better understanding of the schools. He makes friends for the schools. He is an artist in making democracy work, because he knows how to interest others in a cause that exists for the purpose of emphasizing the worth of each individual in society. He exercises a leadership that comes as near being unselfish as human beings can attain, for the promotion of public education means the furtherance of all social institutions in a democracy.

The great majority of school board members are sincere, honest, unselfish citizens who work long and hard to fulfill their obligations and under whose leadership the cause of public education is continuously progressing. There have been, however,

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[8] American Association of School Administrators, *School Boards in Action* (Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1946), pp. 27-28.

graduation from high school, or in the incidence of moral and social delinquency among teen-agers and young adults, or in the unpreparedness of youth to face the problems of adult life.

Not everyone in the community feels the same about what the schools are doing, and some elements of the population are more vocal in expression of their feelings than are others; some are better organized than others.

Board members must sense the feeling of the community and the attitude of the pupils and of the teaching staff and must appraise the criticisms that drift to them from angry parents, disappointed businessmen, and long-tongued gossips. Board members must know how to detect the motives of the selfish and the envious; they must be able to analyze emotional outbursts of disappointed citizens, parents, and teachers; and they must above all be able and willing to distinguish the earnest efforts of those who would improve public education from the malignant efforts of those who would destroy it (it).[12]

The board and the superintendent. The school board and the superintendent work together as a team to interpret the desires of the community and to translate them into working school policy. Many suggestions as to policies will originate with individual board members, but more will be recommended by the superintendent. It is his particular role to advise the board what any school policy will mean to the children involved. His professional training and experience in school administration and in teaching usually enable him to apply basic principles of good educational philosophy and procedure to any proposed steps. Final decision always rests with the board, but the final shape of these policies can be significantly benefited by the suggestions of the school executive.

The origin of proposals for school-board policy show the democratic nature of the public school system. The schools are good when the community wants them to be, and it is the board of education which looks for and listens to opinions of the people about the education their children are experiencing. Translation of these desires, opinions, and dissatisfactions into

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[12] AASA, *op. cit.,* p. 36-37.

school policy to be put into effect by the staff is a continuous process of evaluating and improving the present program.

The board that has a thorough knowledge and understanding of the community and of what education can do builds an educational program that the community needs and can afford. Many school patrons are not fully aware of the value of a well-rounded school program, seeing perhaps only the more dramatic and tangible learning activities such as physical education, music, dramatics, and so on; others are perhaps content with an education geared to the "good old days" when they went to school and are ready to suspect any suggested change.

If the board senses specific educational needs for which adequate support (by the community) is required, it is the duty of the board to develop within the community the necessary recognition and understanding of these needs to promote a desire to achieve them. *To accomplish this purpose the board must give considerable attention to educational planning that involves more than immediate satisfaction on the part of its patrons.*[14]

The professional school executive. The office and duties of the professional school executive has been going through a *process of evolution since the earliest days of public education.* When the first public schools were organized all the people of a community met in town meeting and took responsibility for operation of their school. They made the decision to have a school, provided the necessary money, and elected the teacher.

With growth of the school district and complexity of the educational program, the schools came under direction of a school committee, which in turn developed into the board of education. Early boards not only determined what was to be done for children in the school but also carried on all activities necessary in operating the program other than the actual teaching. They planned the actual details of what was to be taught, provided the building and kept it in repair, made necessary purchases of supplies and equipment, hired a teacher to whom they delegated the actual instruction, and appraised the effectiveness of the teaching through their own visitation or that of a

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[14] *Ibid.*, p. 219.

special lay committee made up of learned people in the community. Their organization was simple, but it included every essential executive activity to be found in the operation of today's educational programs.

As schools grew in size and number of classrooms, the building principal's position evolved to coordinate instructional activities among the teachers. In turn, the superintendency first came into being a little more than a century ago to coordinate instruction among several independent schools, each having its own principal. During this stage most of the executive activity was still carried on by the elected board, leaving to the superintendent only supervision of instruction and preparation of courses of study.

The general trend today is toward a superintendent as the sole, chief executive responsible to the board which has delegated all executive functions to him, retaining only the function of planning general educational policy and social appraisal of the results.

Theory and practice. Today the separate functions carried on by the board and by the superintendent are quite clearly defined in theory, but actual practices differ rather widely among school districts. The powers and functions of each are supposed to be mutually complimentary, divided on the basis of which role can be best performed by layman or professional and, most important, on the basis of what will give the best possible education to the children. In general, all legislative functions belong to the board and executive powers to the superintendent. The board makes decisions as to what and how children shall be taught, what facilities will be needed to do this most effectively and how they shall be supplied. The superintendent is responsible for carrying out these decisions and reporting back to the board their accomplishment.[15]

The exact nature of the superintendent's responsibility for the educational program, the duties and powers that are his, his relations with board and professional employees are prob-

15 For a classified list of respective functions in detail see American Association of School Administrators, *op. cit.*, p. 49-51.

ably different within each individual school district. In smaller communities where the number of children attending school is not great, the superintendent quite often teaches in addition to his administrative duties. In such districts the board often has reserved for itself many of the administrative functions properly belonging to the superintendent.

In a number of large districts there is still a "dual superintendency," i.e., there is one executive for the instructional phase of the program and another for all non-instructional activities such as finance, service of supplies, school plant, etc; both executives are equal in authority and responsible to the board. In most districts where the superintendent is the chief executive he has a trained group of assistant superintendents, supervisors, and specialists who assist him in carrying out the executive function. The size and work of this staff vary according to the district.

In general, the degree and quality of leadership the superintendent exerts over the educational program is dependent upon his own ability and experience, upon the quality of laymen elected to the school board and their concept of their obligations to children and to the community, and upon the pattern of previous working relations between board and superintendent in that community. The executive's duties may include:

(1) A comprehensive instructional policy; (2) the development of the school plant; (3) the selection and organization of personnel; (4) the development of the curriculum to make effective the instructional policy; (5) securing the attendance of children and adults; (6) the operation of the physical plant; (7) the development of adequate records; (8) appraisal of the efficiency of operation of the several activities and the efficiency of their contribution to the general objectives; (9) supervision of the program and personnel; (10) interpreting the community and the institution, (11) securing and expending finance essential this program.[18]

The principal. The principal is the professional leader of his school, its executive officer, and the representative of the superintendent. It is his responsibility to carry out the plans, policies,

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[18] Arthur B. Moehlman, op. cit., p. 260. A more detailed breakdown of the executive operation is given on pp. 261-262 of this text.

and directives that have come from the office of the superintendent. His actual duties may be classified under three general functions: improvement of the instructional program, counselling and guidance of students, and management. While there are separate and distinct duties involved in each phase of the principal's operations, no one function can be disassociated from any of the others. The purpose of the school and its program is to promote development in individual children, and the principal serves to improve constantly the process by which that purpose is achieved.

Instructional activities and guidance are essentially two views of the same process: helping the individual child understand himself, his environment, what he needs to live in that environment and motivating him to develop his ability to live as a happy, worthy citizen. Management is the organization and administration by the principal of the school day, the school plant and facilities, and the school's personnel so that an optimum job of teaching and guiding the students can be accomplished.

What is done for children in a particular school is the responsibility of the principal and directly reflects his ability as an educator and as a leader. His philosophy of education and of administration, his understanding of children, his knowledge of the community and its educational needs, and his ability to work with people — children, professional associates, parent and non-parent laymen — have significant bearing upon the quality of education in his school.

In many small schools the principal carries a teaching load, often quite heavy, in addition to his administrative duties; the educational program in such schools is likely to suffer from lack of leadership unless there is an unusually good working spirit and relationship among the staff and with the principal. In some of the larger high schools, there is a rather elaborate staff organization of assistant principals and subject-matter department heads to help the principal carry out his functions.

The teacher in the school structure. It is the individual child who is the focus of the educational program of the public school.

The key person through whom all services to children are funnelled is the teacher in the classroom. It is the teacher in whose hands the community ultimately places its responsibility for educating their children. It is essential that the individual teacher realize his role and purpose in the educational organization of a community's schools. Administrators, supervisors, specialists of the school system are "on call" to the teacher to be made use of in every way possible in the teacher's conduct of learning activities for the children in his care.

Of immediate importance to the individual teacher is an awareness of the individuals who serve in these administrative and advisory positions, an understanding of their responsibilities, and an insight into their educational philosophies and working relationships with other personnel in the system. An educational program is the joint enterprise of a number of individual people, each contributing his unique bit to what is done for the individual children. In no two school systems are the relationships between and among lay and professional personnel exactly the same. The teacher will do well to make a careful, continuing study of the countless variables that make these relationships what they are and their effect on the teacher's relations with children in and out of the classroom.

Better educational leadership at all levels. The key to the quality of educational experiences provided for youth in a particular school lies in the manner in which the principal carries out his function as educational leader. Fundamental, lasting change in the program can be made by coordinated planning and action on the part of laymen, students, teachers, and administrators. The principal should be able to stimulate good human relations among the faculty of the school and between faculty and students, proper motivation to learn on the part of students, and close relations with the public.

Improved leadership on the part of the local superintendent is of equal importance, for he is the educational leader of the whole community's program for their youth. To increase the effectiveness of their professional leadership, school administrators are developing their abilities in the area of human relations

through in-service study of the techniques of group dynamics. Attention must be given in the nation's schools and teacher-education institutions to attracting and preparing for school administration the highest type of men and women that can be found.

1. Determine the number of students enrolled in your local junior and senior high school, listing the number in each grade level from seven through twelve. Note the percentage decrease in enrollment approaching the twelfth grade.
2. Conduct a class discussion on what young people will need to live as adults in tomorrow's society. Compile a list of these educational needs.
3. Each student secure a list of the subjects offered in the high school he attended. Compare the scope of the offerings in the various sizes of schools reported.
4. Prepare a list of subjects you studied while in high school. Conduct a class discussion on which subjects did most for you and which did least.
5. Prepare a list of the extracurricular activities in which you engaged while in high school. Compare the scope of the activities program in various size high schools represented in your class.
6. Conduct a survey of high schools represented in your class to determine the counselling services available to individual students for educational and vocational planning.
7. Secure sample report cards from as many high schools as possible. Compare how complete is the information reported about the individual students.
8. Study the facilities available in nearby high schools for educating handicapped children.
9. Attend a meeting of the local teacher's organization. Note the issues discussed.
10. Study the college entrance requirements of the various colleges in your state. What conclusions can you draw as to their effect on high school programs?

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18

Factors Affecting the Program
and Organization of Public Instruction

David E. Willis

The public school is one of the principal institutions provided by democratic society to guide and direct the growth of its young people toward the role of citizens. Together with home and church, and assisted by other agencies in the community, the school provides activities designed to guide the all-round development of individual youth.

The school's prime resource by which these objectives will be realized is the classroom teacher. It is he who will plan and direct the objectives by which the individual's growth will be shaped; in the school it is he who will contribute most to the process of meeting the individual student's needs. To accomplish this he must know something of what the students are like as a group and as individuals; he must realize that each young person will have need of these skills, attitudes, and understandings to a different degree and that they can be met only through teaching that takes into account this individuality.

Characteristics of the student population. More and more of the nation's youth are staying in the school program a longer period of time than ever before. In 1890 only seven per cent of youth fourteen to seventeen years of age were enrolled

in high schools. The percentage increased to 73 per cent in 1940, and to an estimated 80 per cent in 1960.[1] A high-school education for its children has become an increasingly important educational and social goal to the American family, and higher incomes have made that goal economically possible for the great majority of families. Youth tend to stay in school longer because opportunities for employment at early ages have steadily decreased. Compulsory-attendance laws have increased the age at which children may legally leave school; in the majority of states the upper age-limit is now sixteen years of age, and six states require eighteen. These changes are discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

These trends have brought a change in the characteristics of the student group found in the teacher's classroom. No longer is the group one of students with generally similar economic and social backgrounds, similar interests, and ability to assimilate subject matter learning at a fairly high standard of scholastic achievement.

In present high schools there are all types of young people, having an extremely great variation in background, interests, and abilities. When there were only a few students in the public high schools, the general occupational objective was the professional field; youths who would enter skilled and unskilled vocations were often able to move into the labor market without having to complete high school.

Today when the great majority of high-school age youths are in high schools, youth will move from school into all types of job classifications; job opportunities for those who do not complete high school are comparatively limited. The net significance to the teacher is a need to teach to a great range of individual differences that calls for imagination, insight into the individualities of each youth, and ingenuity in attempting to help each develop to the utmost of his capabilities.

The following descriptions of individual youths taken from cumulative record folders in certain high schools will perhaps

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[1] H. R. Douglass and L. H. Elliott, "School Enrollment and Teacher Need," *School and Society*, 66:369-372, 1947.

give some understanding of the individualities to be found among the students in one classroom. Even from such a brief picture of each youth it is not hard to realize that each one is different from the others and that the difference is what each can contribute to and take away from an educational program is of great significance for their teachers. One can hardly call these young people "typical American youth," yet the seven million or so youngsters in high schools today are individuals just like those here described.

Dick is a boy of many talents. He seems to have creative talent in many different lines, and finishes his academic work almost to perfection. His attitude makes him stand out in class; he appears to crave attention. A scolding or punishment only seems to serve as a "spotlight" on him, and he glories in it just as much as in praise.

In spite of his mischief, Dick is a likable lad and completely unselfish in other things besides attention. He honestly seems to like to make everyone like him. His creativeness finds expression in outstanding art work, in showmanship and ability to entertain other students. He dances very well and is popular at school functions; he is often called upon to put on little skits in assemblies. Unfortunately, he carries this showmanship into the classroom and fails to recognize that entertainment is only a small part of social living.

Dick is sixteen, short, well-knit physically, but he could hardly be called handsome. His father works as an unskilled laborer in the community and has a reputation for being a heavy drinker.

Alan, a sophomore, is a quiet, good-looking boy of sixteen. He never says anything in class without being called upon and sleeps quite frequently. He has received only average grades in all his subjects.

His social life in and out of school is centered around a young girl with whom he has been going steady for the past two years, and the other students appear to accept this typical relationship as "one of those things." Neither he nor his girl friend attend school functions.

Alan, the second of six children, lives with his mother, who

has a deformed arm, and does door-to-door selling to help support the family. His father is a log-cutter who works in another state and lets his family get along as best they can.

Similar statements can be made about all students. These illustrations indicate some of the differences.

Eleanor is a good-looking, well-groomed girl. Her clothes are good, and her hair is always in lovely condition. She is a vivacious person who becomes peeved when things don't go her way. In class she works hard if she is interested but talks and disrupts when bored.

Her father is a turkey rancher who went to the University after finishing four years in a military academy. She has two older brothers who finished college and now own ranches in Arizona. The family has a beautiful home, and they do quite a lot of traveling. They give Eleanor every opportunity. She makes her own clothes and earns extra money by raising chickens. While in junior high school, she wanted to take interior decorating in college; now she thinks she wants to study law.

Kenneth is a boy with ability, but one who questions everything and has to think things over before he will accept them. *He falls behind the other students and seems easily discouraged.* He is an interesting boy and very cooperative, apparently wanting to do the right things.

He is nice looking but wears dirty clothes, and his hands are never clean. He listens intently with his mouth open and ear cocked, and then asks you to repeat your question. The class groans every time he opens his mouth to talk because he takes class time and they lose interest.

His father has had many jobs but now is a farmer; his mother is a bookkeeper. He has a younger brother and a sister. The family lives in a basement since their home burned before the children were born. Kenneth works after school for two hours to earn money for school expenses.

Dolores is a sophomore, fifteen years old, not especially attractive but lively and very friendly. She appears to be popular with other girls but not with the boys.

Her father is a small, quiet man who came to America when

he was eighteen. He is very hard working and has been very successful. Her mother is about thirty-five, attractive, vivacious, but apparently has not had much education.

In class Dolores is always willing to work. This is not the case with many others, so her grades are above average. She listens most of the time during class discussions, but the few remarks she makes show good thinking. She is a dependable girl.

Andy is a slim, dark boy with fine features. He isn't heavy enough to be able to take part in many sports, but he is a good tennis player and has a letter in that sport. Every noon he can be found trouncing all comers at ping pong.

His mother died when he was quite young. He lived with his father on the farm until he was in the first grade but now lives in town with his guardians.

In class Andy consistently does work that is above the level of the rest of the class. Usually when a question is put to the class, Andy's hand is up, and, if no one else can supply the answer, he knows it. He often tries to lead the class discussion away from the topic the class is on into one he thinks he is more interesting. He is a leader in the class activities, whether for good purpose or for mischief.

Martha is a rather thin but pretty girl of fifteen. She usually dresses quite colorfully and is always clean and neat. She is living with her grandparents, who do not speak English. She has an older brother who is genuinely interested in helping her, but her grandmother refuses to let him do anything for her.

She seems to be extremely shy. She will speak only when spoken to and then only in a voice so low it is difficult to understand what she is talking about, and seldom takes part in regular class activities. Several of the girls in the room have tried to make friends with her but all have given up because of lack of response from her.

She has not done satisfactory school work but has been passed on from grade to grade to keep her with her own social group. Her main interest is art. She has her own art materials and frequently will sit and draw pictures during the class while others are reading or writing.

What should the high school do for youth? What should the individual receive in high school that will contribute to his development into a worthy, happy citizen? It is the teacher's responsibility to analyze what the individual youth in his care will need, and it is his task to match these "needs" against his insight into the potentialities of each individual. From this alignment he will develop a practical working plan for what he, as an individual teacher, can do with available facilities to contribute significantly to the growth of these youths.

There have been many statements describing these so-called "imperative educational needs of youth" that the teacher can use as a guide in his own educational planning. The following outline of basic needs might well be used: [3]

1. Mastering the tools of communication.
2. Developing a strong body and a sound attitude toward it and toward good health practices.
3. Developing satisfactory social relationships with other adolescents and adults.
4. Understanding and appreciating the value of family life *together with a desire for and ability to improve family living.*
5. Acquiring knowledge of, practice in, and zeal for democratic processes.
6. Becoming sensitive to the importance of group action in the attainment of social goals and proficient in the skills involved in such action.
7. Becoming an effective consumer.
8. Becoming occupationally adjusted.
9. Developing a meaning for life.

The teacher will have to break down such a list of youth needs into detailed skills, understandings, and attitudes that can be met through the learning activities in and out of the classroom which the teacher can plan and direct. He will continually seek to revise his concept of what his own students need in light of new insights into what they are like as individuals and in light of his own grown in-service.

Within the overall organization of the program various units have been formed that are based upon pupil-age levels; certain

years or "grades" are assigned to each unit. The basic units generally found are: nursery school, age three and four; kindergarten, age five; elementary, grade one through six or eight; junior high school, generally grade seven through nine; senior high school, grades ten through twelve; community college, grades thirteen and fourteen.

There are many different combinations of these units in the vertical organization of school programs. Combining grades one to eight in one unit and nine through twelve in the other unit has been the traditional pattern. Other basic plans include the so-called 6-3-3, 6-6, 8-4-4 organizations; further variations of these vertical organizations are to be found.

The secondary-school phase of the educational program generally includes grades seven through fourteen, combining junior and senior high school and the community college. There are many advantages and disadvantages to be found in each type of organization, but the articulation of the programs within each unit presents a serious problem in any pattern.[3] Coordination of learning activities and teaching operations, charting individual pupil progress, and building of a more complete insight into the individual through effective systems of cumulative records, understanding of what is being done for the child at each level, sharing and effective use of facilities — these are but a few of the problems that arise in trying to insure a smooth and uninterrupted process of development in the individual child.

The overall plan of the educational program varies among communities according to factors characteristic of a particular community and its people. The character of the educational plan is greatly determined by the degree to which the people of the community understand the purposes to be served by the school and by their ability to support the educational program. Also determining the character of the program is the student population, as well as the mental, physical, and emotional characteristics of the children in the group to be educated.

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[3] A pertinent discussion of the merits of various types of school organization may be found in the *School Executive*, 68:63-78, October, 1948.

Another determinant is the quality of leadership and service in the professional staff of the schools. It will benefit the individual teacher if he will closely study the *how* and *why* of the school organization in the community in which he teaches.

Nature of the high school program. Educators generally believe that learning in the individual child is a continuous, total process of modification of his behavior through a series of experiences. Every activity in a day's time contributes to this process of growth; he learns consciously and unconsciously. His learning does not stop when he leaves the classroom or the school grounds. He learns from relations with people. He learns from seeing, hearing, feeling, smelling, tasting any and all of the elements about him.

Not all of what the pupil learns is purposeful nor is everything he learns conclusive to development of a worthy adult citizen. That process of learning in the individual needs guidance and direction. The educational program of the school functions to provide the kind of experiences that will accomplish this guidance and direction of what the individual learns.

The day-to-day activities planned and provided by the school to influence and promote learning in the individual students constitute the *curriculum* of the school. This concept of the curriculum as including all experiences planned by the school is not universal but is usually found only in more forward-looking schools.

Guidance. Upon entrance into the high school program the individual student is expected to choose a certain course or program of studies which he is to pursue during the term of his high school years. These so-called "courses" are schematic arrangements of subjects grouped according to what is supposed to be the student's interest in and ability to prepare for a career after graduation. For instance, if he thinks he wants to go to college, he will follow a college preparatory course; if he is interested in a certain trade, a vocation course; if he doesn't know what he wants, which *is too often true, and his scholarship and academic ability have been not too good,* he may be advised to choose a general course.

In some schools, these courses are parallel to each other and run vertically through the entire high-school period. Once the student is embarked upon one course or another, he is allowed few options of other subjects that may interest him outside the course requirements.

In the larger high schools, the student may choose from several such courses; also, he is able to choose from a wider variety of subject-matter offerings in any one course. In the smaller high schools, however, because of limited facilities and fewer teachers with consequent narrower coverage of subject-matter areas, the student has only a limited choice of courses and of subjects within each. Quite often there is only one course of study in the small school, and it fulfills college entrance requirements; every student goes through this course regardless of interest or ability. A system of constants with electives is much to be preferred to a series of rigid curriculums.

The subject-centered phase of the educational program is built upon the premise that all students will receive approximately the same material in prescribed doses administered by the teacher. This does not agree with what is now known about individual differences and human learning.

The value of each subject to the individual pupil in terms of its use to him in adult life is not always readily discernible to the student himself. As the subject is unfolded in the classroom it may be only dimly related to the realities of the learner's life situation. Since most students find it hard to apply themselves to learning something when they see no immediate reason for it, their teachers are faced with the alternative of presenting that purpose to the learner in terms he can understand or of inducing him to learn through relatively artificial means. In the day-to-day classroom periods all sorts of "discipline problems" may arise from pupils having to learn when their hearts are not in it. Guidance is imperative because of the great diversity of interests, abilities, and needs of the individual students.

Remedial instruction. The student who has meager mental ability or is handicapped by poor reading habits may be considered unprepared to measure up to what is expected of stu-

dents at the high school level. In an increasing number of secondary schools, this student may be recommended for "remedial instruction" to bring him up to where he can achieve on a level with the others. These students who have difficulty in adjusting to the educational program are removed from the classroom for special diagnosis and treatment by various specialists, ordinarily with considerable success, and then returned to the classroom.

Activities. The extracurricular phase of the program originally came into being to give students opportunity to participate in activities built around their special interests. Many out-of-class activities have been planned and organized very largely by students themselves and have been conducted according to democratic principles of group action. Because such activities have been based upon individual student interests and because students have been allowed to participate in their planning and direction, their value as learning experiences has been great.

Inclusion of various activities in the educational program of any one high school usually depends upon the variety of special interests among the teachers who will serve as sponsors, upon the expressed desires of the students, upon the facilities within the school plant and community, and upon the time within the students' day that can be devoted to participation. This last factor is a particular problem in the many high schools where a large number of students are transported to and from school on busses. There has been a growing trend to give many of these out-of-class activities equal standing with subject-matter classes, in some schools, they have even been made a part of the learning experience within the classroom.

Other factors which shape the program. Each community in the nation should have a certain amount of freedom to set up an educational program designed to meet its peculiar needs and the needs of its own youth. Yet, most high schools have programs that follow a fairly uniform pattern of required and elective subjects and out-of-class acativities. Understanding of the factors that influence the program is necessary if one is to consider how change in the program can be effected.

The educational program operates within the organizational structure described in the previous chapter, but there are agencies, pressure-groups, and intangible forces operating within the school, in the community, and over the nation to determine what shall be done for youth in the school.

Within the community. Not every one in the community holds similar opinions about what the school should do for youth. The only concept of what a school program is like on the part of many people is the memory of what they experienced when they were in high school. Adults are quite likely to feel that what was good enough for them should be good enough for today's young people, and are likely not to understand the need to do more in meeting youth needs.

The only contact many parents have with the school's program lies in the homework assigned their youngsters, the daily school experiences these children describe, and the activities in which they see them participate. Parent reactions to these phases of the program may be quite varied.

Merchants and professional men of the community who have contact with the young people as consumers and as new employees are likely to value the high school program in terms of the abilities and attitudes they see in some individuals and are lacking in others.

What the community wants and what it is willing to pay for affect directly the scope and quality of curricular offerings that can be scheduled in the local high school. The amount of money available for the educational program determines the number of curricular activities that may be offered above the state's minimum required program. It determines the teacher-pupil ration in the classroom, which affects directly the amount of attention each teacher can give to individual students and the degree to which she is able to teach to wide ranges of abilities and interests. It determines the class and extracurricular load assigned to each teacher, and the extra time for planning and conferences with students. It will determine the number of specialists who can be employed to bring resources and assistance to classroom teachers. Perhaps most important, it de-

termines the quality of teaching that can be secured by fixing the salaries that can be paid to teachers.

There are many "publics" in a community, each likely to have a different degree of understanding of what is being done in the high school and a different idea of what should be done. These publics are organized as well as unorganized and are scattered throughout the community. But when school issues become vital to them, they can gather to speak their opinions.

The degree of interest in the educational program and what is happening to young people will vary widely among these groups. *School board members and faculty members should study their community carefully to locate and evaluate these groups.* The principal lay groups exerting unofficial influences on the school program have been identified as:

(1) *Financial, industrial, and commercial organizations;* (2) *Labor organizations;* (3) *Patriotic societies;* (4) *Commercial corporations with goods and services to sell that directly or indirectly touch the school and personnel within it;* (5) *Religious groups;* (6) *Economy-minded organizations planning to reduce school costs;* (7) *Vocational and professional organizations;* (8) *Professional educational groups;* and (9) *Organization of parents.*[4]

The school board will consult the opinions of these people, both those in organized groups and those not organized, in considering formation of school policies. *Teachers and administrators will be sensitive to the expressed and implied opinions of parents and other patrons in determining the following:* the learning activities to be provided in the curriculum, methods to be used in promoting and evaluating pupil progress, and plans for improvement of what is done in the school. The process of working to educate the public to the need for effective education and getting them organized to bring it about leads to a definite stability in the educational program that is characteristic of a school system in a democratic society.

Within the school. Educators, as well as the supporting citizens, are reluctant to abandon the tried and true in a school

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[4] Harl R. Douglass and Calvin Grieder, *American Public Education* (New York: Ronald Press, 1948), pp. 223-226.

program for something with which they are unfamiliar. The past experience of many faculty members in all probability has been with a certain type of curriculum. They have no real basis for understanding the how, what, or why of any different plan. They feel a sense of security in retaining essentially what they have used and prefer to consider only changes that modify existing organization and procedures.

In considering fundamental changes in organization of content, many school people want to look at what is being done in other school systems to solve problems similar to their own. What is found elsewhere may either serve as a justification for retaining present practice, or it may lead to installing almost blindly what is in use elsewhere without careful consideration. Thus, what often happens is a lot of talk about what could be and should be done with correspondingly little action.

One of the greatest determiners of what shall be done in an educational program is the school plant. School buildings are usually planned on the basis of a certain philosophy of education and built to allow operation of an educational program based on that philosophy. Buildings are permanent structures, requiring an outlay of money by the community that cannot be repeated except at infrequent intervals.

Thus, any program will be limited by the facility with which the building can be adapted to the activities planned for students. A fatal tendency in some school systems is to postpone any efforts to make best use of present facilities while waiting for provision of new. The limitations of the physical plant can be overcome in large part by an energetic faculty and sometimes by minor renovation, such as changing classroom walls to provide more space.

Resource materials. Another determiner of what can be done in an educational program is the quality and quantity of resource material available to teachers and pupils. Teachers need instructional material around which to build learning activities; they provide them with examples, illustrations, and applications which they can employ in teaching operations. Students need these materials to make learning meaningful.

Mere verbal descriptions by the teacher do not result in accurate or lasting concepts to any but the superior students.

When the textbook is the only resource available, serving the teacher as outline for the content and sequence of learning activity and the student as almost sole source of information, little real learning can be expected. System and state-wide adoption of textbooks allow comparatively little flexibility of choice to the local school.

Selection of current periodicals, references, and other material for libraries is best when based on teacher-planned learning activities. Limited choice of audio-visual materials, particularly in small schools, and inflexible scheduling of the use of such materials in large schools hinder really effective learning experiences.

The morale of a faculty can transcend the physical limitations of the building. There is likely to be continuing effort made to do the utmost for individual students with present facilities while waiting for better, if there is a spirit and practice of co-operative effort to evaluate results in terms of student growth and morale and to plan for trying out of better ways to meet youth needs. Essential to such spirit is administrative leadership that can stimulate the staff to work together on common problems and to share ideas. Without this spirit individuals within the staff are likely to feel that there are too many inhibiting factors to allow serious effort to consider change of present practice.

Outside the community: colleges. The high school curriculum has long been greatly influenced by the fact that in every high school there are certain students who will attend college after graduation. Consequently, when they enter high school, many students embark upon a program of studies that will enable them to qualify for entrance to a college even though they may not have the intellectual or financial ability to meet the standards required for college attendance. In addition many may not have matured enough to know where their vocational interests lie. In other words, an early choice is made because their parents do not want the "door to college closed" to them

and because this college-preparatory course carries with it a prestige that any other lacks. Countless young people have had to suffer through such a program even though they did not go to college. Thus, they have often had more useful learning experiences denied them.

Preparation for college has restricted curricular offerings in high schools by dictating the subjects needed for so-called "college entrance requirements" and by necessity to drill some students for "College Entrance Board Examinations." Admission only on the basis of entrance examination scores has almost disappeared except in a few private institutions, but admission officers in many colleges and universities closely evaluate student transcripts to see that the approved pattern of basic courses in history, English, mathematics, and sciences are offered. Content of a course is seldom questioned, but if these traditional requirements do not appear or have been given more functional titles, the student may be required to make up certain "deficiencies" without credit before being officially admitted. There is a growing trend to require for admission only the transcript and a letter of recommendation from the high school principal saying that the individual is capable of doing college work.

Performance in college by graduates of an individual high school has a strong but indirect influence upon content and method within the college-preparatory subject courses. If word drifts back that students are having trouble in history, or if a number of graduates are having to take "sub-freshmen" because they "didn't know their fundamentals," the teacher of the particular subject is likely to be told that her "standards are too low." Unfortunately, the students who probably are not going to college are also given excessive drill along with the students who need further drill to meet traditional college standards. The evidence we have of success in college, except in specialized fields such as engineering, gives little hope to those who would prescribe the units necessary for college attendance.

Accrediting agencies. The practice of evaluating high schools

to determine whether or not their programs meet certain pre-
determined standards first arose when colleges sought to insure
that graduates of high schools were adequately prepared for
college study. Associations of colleges and secondary schools
were organized to determine the necessary standards, evaluate
the educational programs, and to approve or accredit those
meeting the standards.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary
Schools was the first to be established in 1895. Standards for
accreditation have generally been concerned with quantitative
phases of the program such as school plant, length of school
year, subject offerings, teacher load, qualifications of teachers
and administrators, number of books in the library, and records.

Efforts have been made to seek more than quantitative
measure of the quality of an educational program and to seek
criteria and instruments that will determine how well the needs
of individuals and community are being met. The unfortunate
effect of these accrediting agencies on high school programs has
been to restrict their offerings to college-entrance requirements
when funds and facilities do not permit much variety.

State departments. In order to insure that the state's minimum
program of education is being provided, state departments of
public instruction have taken upon themselves an evaluative
and accrediting function similar to that of agencies described
in the previous paragraph. They have declared that certain
standards must be met if state aid to secondary schools is to be
given to the individual school district. *Many districts, with
sparse population, able to maintain only a small high school,
have found it increasingly hard to support the program required
by the state.* They have had to face the alternatives of being
labelled non-accredited and losing state aid funds or of closing
*their high school and sending their students to a nearby
accredited school.*

This process has speeded reorganization of many small, in-
efficient school districts into consolidated high school districts.
It has also forced many small high schools to limit their pro-
grams to a meager fare of college-preparatory courses taught

to very small classes, often with inadequate facilities and by teachers whose training does not lie in the particular subject fields. Such programs are frequently supplemented by correspondence courses.

Professional organizations. The National Education Association and its many departments, state and local education associations, and other organizations, educational foundations and boards, honorary organizations and many other associations of professional personnel have made significant contributions toward improving educational opportunities for American youth. They have been instrumental in broadening and improving educational programs through research in many areas, through efforts to secure improved school laws, through upgrading standards of teacher and administrator preparation and certification, through campaigning for improved working conditions for teachers, by encouraging educational experimentation and lay-professional cooperation. They are a growing force in the improvement of what is being done for youth in the high school and elementary school classroom.

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

1. Draw or secure a map of the local school district in which you went to school or the one in which your college is located. Place the following on this map: location of each elementary and high school in the district, all bus routes.
2. Go to your county court house and interview the county superintendent. Discuss with him the operation of his staff, the number of schools which he serves directly, and the scope of his duties.
3. Secure a copy of the state laws covering education in your state. From this source determine the following:
   a. Process by which members of the state board of education are elected, their tenure of office, their duties.
   b. Process by which chief state school officer is selected and his duties.
4. Attend a meeting of your local school board. Listen carefully to the issues being discussed.
5. Draw a chart of the staff organization in your local school district.

6. Attend a faculty meeting in a local high school.
7. Secure a copy of the annual budget estimate of your local school district if such is available.
8. Visit a classroom in which the teacher is teaching the same subjects you are preparing to teach.
9. Interview this teacher and others to determine what supervisory and specialist help he or she has available in the school organization.
10. Interview several lay people in your own community. Try to determine their interest in the school program and how complete their understanding is of what is being done in the school.

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APPENDIX

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A

Scholarship aid for the most able students, say two per cent of the population, would enable some potential leaders to stay in school, but not all needy children are potential leaders. Furthermore, nearly one-half the "cost" of attending school is for clothing and even if scholarship aid were available, it goes against the grain for healthy young people to accept clothing from sources outside the family. Many boys and girls would rather go without the things they want and need than accept charity.

Few people object, however, to young people earning the money necessary to stay in school. Here, in normal times, seems to be the solution to the problem. It is a community responsibility to see that jobs are available so that needy and worthy young people can earn the money to continue their education. Likewise it is the school's job to coordinate with his academic program the work which enables the young person to stay in school.

During the war, millions of boys and girls were eagerly sought in the service occupations to replace their older brothers and sisters who had gone into war production or into the armed services. When the war ended, many communities forgot that young people needed the learning experience of working, and that large numbers of them needed part-time jobs to enable them to stay in school. This means that school teachers and administrators have an educational task to sensitize their communities to the needs of a work-experience program.

During periods when jobs are scarce, the problem is different. Some years ago the NYA enabled many young people to earn part of the money necessary to stay in school. But sufficient funds never were available. The average sum earned by high schools students on NYA projects was about $4.50 per month — helpful, but not enough to pay the cost of school attendance. Moreover, although the NYA was helpful, it should have been administered *as part of* the school system instead of *apart from* it. It is generally agreed that the funds for the in-school program should have been allotted to the U.S. Office of Education to be given in turn to the state departments of education for distribution.

CLASS STRUCTURE AND THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

It has long been an American creed that the United States is without class structure or restriction on social mobility. It has been a fond belief of many citizens that the school is a completely democratic, classless society. Certainly the school is the most democratic institution in American life. Economic circumstances of families are overlooked in schools more generally than anywhere else; boys from "across the tracks" become heroes and athletic captains. Often their prowess enables them to attend a university and to become "upward mobile" in society. It is part of the American dream that anyone can rise in our society, if he wishes to do so. This belief is not without foundation, for a railsplitter and a haberdashery salesman have become presidents of the United States. Scarcely any citizen can be found who does not know someone who has achieved financial or social success, in spite of humble beginnings, because of intelligence, beauty, talent, or perseverance. The possibility of "success-upward" mobility we shall give up only under the severest duress.

Class structure in the community. As any community increases beyond a dozen members, choices must be made regarding the association of individuals with each other. Common ideals or beliefs, a similar background, or a desire to live in the same way tend to dictate those choices. Social anthropologists who have studied the behavior of citizens in their relationships with one another indicate there is a class structure and that it tends to become stratified. Studies have been made in New England, in the Middle West, and the deep South describing the social class structure in three different communities.[11] There is a growing literature in both professional

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[11] W. Lloyd Warner and Paul Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community.* (New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1941.)

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